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EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT



EXPERIMENTS IN FOREIGN- LANGUAGE-TEACHING

THE Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language, a project carried on during 1944-47 at the University of Chicago under the direction of Professor R. W. Tyler, has just come to a close, and its final report is in the process of publication. Made possible by a three-year grant from the Rockefeller Foundation, the Investigation has been devoted to an objective evaluation of some of the recent experiments in modern-language-teaching. These new techniques and emphases are probably familiar to everyone, for the controversy concerning their success or failure has not merely raged in the educational and the linguistic journals but has even boiled over into such periodicals as *Better Homes and Gardens*, *Fortune*, and *Reader's Digest*.

Much (though not all) of this recent experimentation conducted by high schools and colleges is an outgrowth of wartime experience in language-teach-

ing. The A.S.T.P. (Army Specialized Training Program in Language and Area) was probably the best known because it was carried on in more than fifty colleges and hence incorporated the greatest numbers of students, teachers, and institutions, but somewhat similar courses were conducted by the Navy, by other military branches, and by various civilian agencies. All these programs profoundly affected language-teaching because hundreds of language instructors taught in them and hundreds more of the younger teachers, who were serving in the armed forces, were assigned to these programs as trainees.

As a result of this experience, many language teachers felt that the general aims and procedures of these courses should serve as the basis for a reform of all subsequent language-teaching; other members of the profession were less enthusiastic. Since, for a number of reasons, the students in these programs had usually not been tested by

examinations commonly used in our schools and colleges, an objective evaluation of the work of the various training centers was impossible, and, as was to be expected, personal opinions and impressions, which were influenced by many different factors, were very divergent.

The Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language was established in 1944 for the purpose of securing this objective information. The military programs were almost concluded at that time, but many instructors and institutions planned to experiment with adaptations of these courses for civilian instruction, beginning with the academic year 1944-45. Where local co-operation could be secured, consequently, the Investigation has worked with these experiments, obtaining detailed descriptions of the procedure, objective testing data, and all other pertinent information which could be gathered.

All these programs varied considerably in their specific objectives and procedures. They were affected by local conditions, by the particular interests and theories of those who conducted them, and by the abilities and the needs of the students for whom they were planned in each case. Consequently, adequate evaluation of any one experiment requires a detailed statement of the purposes which it was intended to serve and of the conditions under which it operated. Likewise, because each program was so highly individualized, generalizations about the experimentation as a whole

are extremely hazardous except against a background of a careful study of each separately. Hence both general and specific comments are best left to the report, where the necessary space is available.

More fundamental problems, however, merit comment here, both because they are of general educational significance and because they constitute basic data for understanding all that has been said and written about these language programs.

Generally speaking, all the experimental undertakings in the foreign languages have been marked by two characteristics: the instruction is "intensive," and greater emphasis has been placed on "ability to speak the language and to understand it when spoken." The two terms put within quotation marks above thus lie at the very heart of the recent programs, and a clear understanding of them is an indispensable prerequisite for judging the language experiments.

Unfortunately, here as in the case of many other educational issues, the basic terms are ill-defined, and the lack of precision is not due primarily to the inadvertence of those using them but is partly inherent in the situation.

In the wartime programs "intensive" frequently meant that the student studied nothing but the language and the geographic area in which it is spoken. He devoted fifteen to twenty hours a week to classroom work, and this amount was often increased once the material on the area could be

given in the foreign language and thus the class in area became also a class in language. In addition to this classroom time, the trainee usually gave many additional hours to outside preparation, though the exact amount varied greatly from program to program. Obviously, then, a month or two of a regimen like this was equivalent to a semester or a year of the old civilian courses if one considers the total time spent by the student.

For the experimental programs "intensive" demands careful definition. In the sense that the student concentrates solely on the language, this interpretation has been possible only in a few summer classes. In most instances "intensive" has meant that the number of class hours has been approximately doubled—classes formerly meeting for four or five hours a week have expanded to eight or ten. Only one or two experiments have been able to get more than ten hours in the normal high-school or college schedule. The pressure of other subjects, the time needed by students for commuting or outside employment, and similar factors have all combined to make ten hours a week the maximum. Thus the present quantity of classroom work, though impressive in comparison with former civilian schedules, still falls far short of the time available in the military programs; usually it is about half as much.

Furthermore, this increase in class hours has frequently been gained only by decreasing the outside preparation required. For example, where a four-

hour course once assumed eight hours of preparation, the new program of eight class hours counts the additional four hours of class as a kind of supervised study. Although speaking and listening can at present be better studied in the classroom than outside it, the fact remains that the total time presumably given to language study in these cases has not been materially increased.

In judging the experimental programs, consequently, it is of primary importance to keep clearly in mind what is meant by "intensive" in any particular case and to remember that "intensive" is always less than the number of hours meant in the military classes. The difficulties which the present courses have encountered in securing additional time would seem to indicate that still greater amounts will not be attainable. Though much can yet be done with intensive summer programs and other special arrangements, the probabilities seem to be that civilian language instruction will have at its disposal no more than eight to ten class hours, plus three to six of outside preparation. Future undertakings will, in most cases, have to accept this limitation in time and endeavor merely to make a more efficient use of what they have, through improved materials, greater use of audio-visual aids, and similar efforts.

The second characteristic of the experimental programs—their greater emphasis on ability to speak and understand the language—also presents fundamental problems of definition.

Although we commonly speak of "knowing a language" as if linguistic ability were an entity which one did or did not possess, we know that the facts are quite different. Knowledge of a language is best represented as a series of points which form a continuum, stretching from almost no knowledge of the language to the point of "complete mastery." This last point, however, is at infinity and is never reached, for no one actually gains complete mastery of even his native tongue. Learning a language constitutes progress along this series of points. The vital question, then, is: At what point or cluster of points shall we say that, for purposes of a working definition at least, a person "knows the language"? This same question applies equally to the particular skills of reading, writing, speaking, and aural comprehension. What kind and amount of skill does a student have to have before we can say that he is able to speak French?

This question was, of course, first faced in regard to "reading ability," and the steps taken to solve it are probably familiar. Counts were made of large samples of written works, and the most frequent words, constructions, and idioms in written materials were thus determined. Since these are the items which the student is most likely to meet in his reading, knowledge of them makes for the ability to read. As a result, "reading ability" has commonly been defined in terms of these frequency counts. That is, a student is said to have "a reading

knowledge of a language" when he knows the two or three thousand most frequent words and a comparable portion of syntax and idiom. To possess this much knowledge of a language does not mean that the student can read at sight anything written in it. But in spite of this limitation and of certain shortcomings of the frequency counts, "reading ability" can be defined in terms of them with fair accuracy.

For aural comprehension and oral production, no analogous bases for definition exist. Aural comprehension should be defined in a manner similar to that used for reading; the student's ability should be measured in relation to his ability to comprehend the most frequent elements in the spoken language. Counts of this sort do not exist, and there are good reasons for doubting whether the existing counts, made of written materials, will also serve for the spoken language. People do not talk as they write, either in the same way or about the same things. As a result, until some objective basis for defining "ability to understand the language" is at hand, the phrase will remain vague and ambiguous, and its actual meaning will depend mainly on the personal whims or hunches of individual instructors and staffs.

Defining "ability to speak a foreign language" is even more complicated. The kind and variety of topic about which the student is to be able to speak, the standards for fluency and correctness, and similar problems—all involve more complexities than

we can touch on here. The general result is, however, the same as that we have just seen for aural comprehension. The objective remains vaguely defined, and hence measuring accurately the progress of individuals or classes toward its achievement is almost impossible.

In sum, in discussions of the newer language courses, the vagueness of these important terms demands careful study of them as applied to any particular program and, above all, to comparisons between any two programs. Sweeping claims of either success or failure are certainly out of place in regard to current experimentation. The bases necessary for sound judgment are still wanting in large part. Finally, and most important, the success or the failure of any individual experiment or group of experiments will remain relatively unimportant as compared with further progress in solving these basic problems of definition.

A NEW PROGRAM FOR HIGH-SCHOOL LATIN

THE place of Latin in the high-school curriculum is a topic which has caused endless debate for the past half-century; yet much of this discussion could be taken as a classic example of controversy which produces more heat than light. It has often been marked by misunderstandings and name-calling. The classicist has tended to look upon the school administrator and the professor of education as twin ogres who wantonly attack, out of

sheer ignorance and boorishness, the educational values which he holds dear. On the other side, the "educator" has come to regard classicists as members of a pressure group which seeks only to protect its vested interests and which is unaware or heedless of the powerful forces pressing upon the high-school curriculum and upon those in charge of it. These mutual misconceptions have inevitably tended to perpetuate and to intensify themselves because they reduced that further communication and contact which alone could modify and correct these notions. In the absence of friendly interchange of ideas and information, attitudes and opinions on both sides have merely hardened, and the search for evidence to demonstrate the facts of the case has almost stopped. As a result, the proper status and function of Latin in the high-school curriculum have remained undetermined except by arbitrary fiat.

A welcome change in many of these respects has been evident in the activities of the Committee on Educational Policies of the Classical Association of the Middle West and South. For the last two years, under the chairmanship of Professor Lenore Geweke, of Illinois State Normal University, this committee has been striving to develop a new program for high-school Latin, one which will better fit the changed curriculum and the changed student body which now appear in our secondary schools. In this effort the committee has tried to consult, rather than insult, specialists in

educational psychology, curriculum construction, and other pertinent fields and has drawn heavily upon members of the Department of Education of the University of Chicago.

Quite apart from the possible values of the Latin program which has been developed, the meetings and consultations have been profitable in themselves. It is not an exaggeration to say that all persons participating have gained a greater respect for the representatives of other fields and a better understanding of the reasons underlying their opinions and attitudes. This outcome has important educational significance. If fruitful co-operation and increased understanding can eventuate from work in so controversial an area as high-school Latin, similar efforts in other fields should be equally feasible and equally productive. Regardless of the future fate of the program, work on it has served the important function of showing each member of the group that those who hold views contrary to his own do not do so simply because of perverseness or stupidity. If this seems a small benefit, we need only remind ourselves of the many educational disputes in which even this much meeting of minds has yet to occur.

The actual program and the principles underlying it are set forth in considerable detail in the November issue of the *Classical Journal*. The general outline of the plan can be seen from a brief quotation from a statement made there by Professor Gerald

F. Else, of the State University of Iowa:

Our stated objectives fall into the two general divisions of linguistic and cultural. . . . We suggest that the primary aim of the first year be linguistic, and that of the second year cultural. In accordance with the principle of concentration, we believe that the cultural experience should center and culminate in the reading of one masterpiece which has undisputed cultural value and can serve as the focus of the whole course, rather than in the reading of scattered selections or parts of Latin works. For reasons that will be discussed later, we regard the *Aeneid* as the masterpiece which best fulfills these requirements.

On the other hand, the work of the first year would be focused on the linguistic benefits of Latin, primarily for English; it would also serve cultural ends, particularly in the second semester, and prepare the student for reading Vergil. Reading Latin is absolutely essential to our purpose; but with respect to the concrete program of the second year, "reading Latin" can be defined as reading Vergil. This more specific definition brings with it certain important corollaries for the handling of vocabulary, syntax, and reading content in the second and third semesters of the course. They will be the bridge to Vergil.

As even this brief sketch indicates, the plan represents a new approach to the problem, involving a rather sharp limitation of objectives and a careful selection of the means of achieving them. Considerable research has been necessary and will continue to be needed before satisfactory materials can be prepared and the course tried out experimentally.

The proposed program will not be a universal nostrum. Probably no member of the committee nor of the group of consultants believes that the

plan incorporates everything he personally would consider desirable in a two-year Latin course. Nor is every member convinced that absolutely every one of the present elements in the program is necessarily desirable or feasible. But even those who may have doubts about some aspects of the plan are supporting it. They prefer to base their final judgments on evidence rather than on prejudice or personal predilection. An experimental program can ask for nothing more than this tolerance. No such proposal is any better than the results it can produce when put into effect. For that reason, all persons familiar with the project hope that ways and means can be found to carry it forward to the point where it can be tried out under carefully controlled conditions and its results accurately evaluated. Then it can be judged on its merits.

Despite the open-mindedness which we have mentioned, undoubtedly there is in both camps a minority who would prefer to carry on the tradition known to the jukeboxes as "feudin', fussin', and fightin'," without any attempt at experimentation and evaluation. Some classicists may choose to move another story higher in the ivory tower and to hope that the graduate students will last their lifetimes. Some educationists and administrators will resent even this much stirring among what they consider the dead bones of Latin and will prefer to bury the subject hastily before it can prove their former statements wrong. However, those in both parties who have an

earnest interest in improved education and who are willing to make their judgments on the basis of evidence can only hope that these intransigents constitute an impotent as well as a small minority. It seems only fair that an undertaking which has received such careful study and such widespread support as has this one should have the chance to prove or to disprove itself in practice and should not be condemned out of hand.

ENGLISH EXAMINATIONS FOR FOREIGN STUDENTS

FOR many years foreign students have come to the United States to continue their educations, but their numbers have increased enormously during the war and postwar periods. Because it is, naturally, the older and more advanced students who seek the technological and professional training in which America is now pre-eminent, the problem of seeing that these visitors have enough English to be able to carry on their work here has thrust itself chiefly upon the colleges and the universities. The secondary schools, too, have had to face it, though to a less degree; some younger students have been coming in recent years, and some of the older ones who had serious educational deficiencies have turned to the high schools for help.

At all educational levels, consequently, assessing these students' command of English and providing the necessary further instruction has become an increasingly vexing prob-

lem. Most of them do need greater competence in English, especially in speaking and listening. Though they have usually studied English for various periods, their command of it is still insufficient for the demands of their work here. The regular courses in English for our native students, even the remedial programs, are far from satisfactory for this purpose. Consequently each year more institutions have had to inaugurate special classes of one sort or another for these foreign students.

All these attempts have labored under numerous handicaps. Initially there was a complete lack of trained personnel and of suitable materials, though the demands of the situation have more recently increased the supply of both. But even with these resources available, work has not been easy. The foreign students, here for only a limited time, have wished to concentrate on their other work, not on English. They have had an understandable tendency to resent or to evade any efforts to change their plans here to accord with their knowledge of English. This attitude has persisted even after it was apparent that they were failing in their other work primarily because of their linguistic inability. Then it was easy to put the blame on their English teachers, either here or in their homeland. As a result, training programs in this country despite the best of intentions, have always run grave risks of being inadequate. The schools have done what they could and hoped for the best.

Much was, of course, done for the

student in these classes, and certainly many foreign visitors have profited from their stays in this country even though they gained much less than would have been possible had their English been better. Nonetheless, probably few students of the problem of English-training in this country will deny that it is best met by avoiding it as much as possible. Except under unusual circumstances, the best arrangement would seem to be for the student to come with an adequate command of English—or at least with a very solid grounding so that any further training can easily be accomplished in the short period available when both the student's time and interest are concentrated elsewhere.

Consequently it is distinctly a forward step that the Department of State has arranged with the College Entrance Examination Board for English tests to be given prospective students *in their native countries*. The first administration, in centers scattered over the globe, was made in November, 1947, and subsequent administrations are planned for the spring of 1948 and thereafter, though difficulties in dollar exchange and other complications will have to be worked out. The present tests are not perfect. What tests ever are? But they are aimed in the right direction, and they can and will be improved. As is the College Board's usual practice, it will not decide whether the student has passed or failed but will report to the interested institution his achievement in relation to the general distribution of scores. The school can then make its

own decision on the basis of this evidence. More experience, both on the part of the board and of the schools, will, of course, be necessary before the system can function with maximum effectiveness, but certainly sound judgments will soon be possible.

In using the results of these examinations, the schools will bear a grave responsibility in setting standards which are sufficiently high. In the past, since the student had already arrived in this country at considerable cost in time, money, and effort, the only defensible position was to help him get what he could. This decision meant to demand as little English as was conceivably sufficient and to hope that he could get by. To have demanded more would have been unjust under the circumstances. Furthermore, the prestige and publicity values of having large groups of foreign students enrolled have tempted some schools to hope that relatively slight amounts of English would serve the students' purposes. In some instances these hopes have been justified; but in many, they have not.

The new arrangement enables schools to deal intelligently, as well as humanely, with the prospective student. His English will be measured before he has invested in a trip to America and before he has completed plans for his stay here. If his performance is judged adequate, he will come with the assurance (*if* the institution has been wise and honest) that his skill in the language in which he will live and work is sufficient. On the other hand, if his English is deemed in-

adequate, he will have learned this fact at a time when his pride, pocket-book, and career will least suffer from it. He can continue to work on English in his native land, knowing that a large part of his investment would have been wasted had he come before he was ready. Clearly this new procedure will benefit both the American institution and the foreign student.

INEXPENSIVE READING MATERIALS

SCHOLASTIC MAGAZINES recently announced a new publication project, which will make interesting books available to teachers and students at low cost. The project is the joint enterprise of Scholastic Magazines and Bantam Books, and the agreement permits exclusive distribution of the titles selected at twenty-five cents a copy.

Twenty-six titles have been selected from the existing lists of Bantam books on the recommendation of high-school authorities, these books to be withdrawn from general newsstand sale and reserved for school use. Additional titles are to be selected by the editors of Scholastic Magazines and representative teachers throughout the nation. The twenty-seven available titles, those taken from previously published Bantam books and a collection of twenty short stories in which the principal characters are teen-agers, are the following:

Babbitt, Sinclair Lewis

Captain from Connecticut, C. S. Forester

Captains Courageous, Rudyard Kipling

Cold Journey, Grace Zaring Stone (Ethel Vance)

- David Harum*, Edward Noyes Westcott
Genghis Khan, Harold Lamb
Green Mansions, W. H. Hudson
Last of the Plainsmen, Zane Grey
Life on the Mississippi, Mark Twain
Lives of a Bengal Lancer, F. Yeats-Brown
Long, Long Ago, Alexander Woollcott
Meet Me in St. Louis, Sally Benson
Oil for the Lamps of China, Alice Tisdale Hobart
Only Yesterday, Frederick Lewis Allen
Rogue Male, Geoffrey Household
Saki Sampler, H. H. Munro (*Saki*)
Scaramouche, Rafael Sabatini
Seventeen, Booth Tarkington
Short History of the Army and Navy, Fletcher Pratt
They Were Expendable, W. L. White
Thirty Seconds over Tokyo, Ted W. Lawson
This Is the Navy, Gilbert Cant (editor)
Three Hostages, John Buchan
Tull and Mr. Tull, Arthur Train
Twenty Grand (twenty short stories)
Wild Animals I Have Known, Ernest Thompson Seton
Wind, Sand and Stars, Antoine de Saint-Exupéry

AMERICAN BROTHERHOOD WEEK

THE Commission on Educational Organizations of the National Conference of Christians and Jews has designated February 22-29 as the date of the 1948 observance of Brother-

hood Week. Schools and colleges, as well as religious organizations and civic agencies, are invited to participate in the suggested activities of this annual tribute to the contributions of various groups to the betterment of American life and institutions. Program suggestions and illustrative materials will be furnished on request to Herbert L. Seamans, National Conference of Christians and Jews, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York 16, New York.

President George F. Zook, of the American Council on Education, who is the chairman of the committee of educators sponsoring Brotherhood Week in 1948, suggests that the observance may be viewed as "the opportunity of emphasizing the necessity of intergroup education, and of securing public support for it." In urging the schools particularly to take advantage of this opportunity, he asserts:

The wide interest and publicity which this observance stimulates creates a favorable atmosphere in which to stress the educational aspects of the task of making America "safe for democracy."

HAROLD B. DUNKEL

WHO'S WHO FOR JANUARY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by HAROLD B. DUNKEL, assistant professor and examiner at the University of Chicago and associate director of the Investigation of the Teaching of a Second Language. CLARENCE H. FAUST, director of the libraries and professor of English at Stanford University, and REUBEN FRODIN, assistant to the vice-president at the University of Chicago, present the results of a study of the curriculum of a private school for girls, which resulted in a program for Grades IX through XII, and point out its implications for the curriculums of all secondary schools. MARIE T. LAUCK, probation officer in the Municipal Court of Marion County, Indianapolis, Indiana, examines evidence that formal guidance while in school acts as a preventive of delinquency in adults. JOHN P. MILLIGAN, supervising principal of the public schools in Glen Ridge, New Jersey, reports the results of an experiment carried on among a selected group of

high-school pupils to investigate conditions and facilities necessary to make it possible for high-school pupils to eat leisurely lunches in the school cafeteria. MIRIAM DENNESS COOPER, headmistress at the Riverdale Country School for Girls in New York City, describes the religious-education program of the Riverdale School. The selected references on secondary-school instruction have been prepared by WARREN C. SEYFERT, associate professor of education and director of the Laboratory School at the University of Chicago, and DAVID H. HELLER, graduate student in education at the same institution.

Reviewers of books W. C. KVARACEUS, associate professor of education at Boston University. WILLIAM G. WHITFORD, associate professor of art education at the University of Chicago. HAROLD H. PUNKE, formerly a professor of education and now an industrial engineer in the employment of the federal government.

NOTES ON A SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

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EARLY in 1947 the authors of this article were invited to study the program of an eastern secondary school for girls and to write a report for the school's governing body. Both authors had been associated with the development of the College of the University of Chicago. They undertook the study of the eastern school because it afforded an opportunity to observe the adaptability of their educational position developed in the College of the University of Chicago to a new situation. The school on which this study is based is conducted under circumstances approximating those of public and private schools throughout the country; it has traditionally offered a program for Grades IX through XII and has never offered work at the college level. These differences from the situation of the College of the University of Chicago (which accepts students who have completed two, three, or four years of high school and places them, by examination, in its four-year program) invited the statement of principles of general education in a new context.

First, with regard to terms: three concepts of secondary education should be distinguished and defined, that is, vocational training, college-preparatory work, and general education. The first is determined by the needs and demands of various remunerative occupations; the second, by the needs of requirements of various colleges; and the third, by the needs of men and women as human beings and as citizens of a democracy. It may be argued that these three kinds of education overlap or even that the last two coincide, but, in the interests of clarity of purpose and effectiveness of program, a secondary school must decide which of three possible sets of aims and criteria it will make fundamental. Should the school be primarily concerned with training boys and girls to make a living, or with preparing them for college, or with providing the foundation of a general and liberal education? A clear decision on this point is the first step in the formation of a policy for the governing body of schools which have a choice before them.

The history and the present problem of the school recently studied by the authors illustrate the history and the present plight of secondary-school education in this country. For the first forty-five years of its existence, the school operated with a simple curriculum of the kind sometimes loosely described as "classical." History, English, foreign languages, and mathematics constituted its core. Some work in art, music, and science was provided, and training in stenography was available for girls who planned to seek employment in offices. In the late 1930's this curriculum came to be regarded as old-fashioned and inflexible. New courses of various sorts were added to the school's offerings, such as homemaking, retailing and consumer education, journalism, glee club, and practical chemistry. As a consequence of this expansion of its curriculum, the school offers at present more than sixty courses. Some of these, such as guidance, retailing and consumer education, and homemaking, do not deserve inclusion in a secondary-school curriculum, "curriculum" being defined as the program of study for which the diploma is awarded. Such courses have neither the content nor the intellectual discipline to justify their inclusion in place of other more important matters. They contain the kind of advice about manners, shopping, dressing, and home furnishing which girls should acquire at home or through association with fellow-students and teachers but which it is unreasonable and unprofitable to present

through formal classroom instruction. Courses set up to do so are thin, artificial, and ineffective. If home training and school association need to be supplemented by the school to provide guidance in such matters, the arrangement to accomplish this purpose should be extra-curriculum.

The expansion of the school's curriculum inevitably increased the number of "elective" courses and reduced the common core of courses through which all graduates of the school might receive the elements of a liberal education. Except for four years of gymnasium work (physical education) and four years of English, the only courses that all students must take are American history (five periods a week for one academic year), and guidance, art appreciation, and music appreciation (one period a week for a year). In short, less than a year and a half of the student's four years is now given to required courses. The courses now required of all students cannot be regarded as providing even an adequate base for general education. Yet all other courses in the curriculum are elective. It is true that students are required to take some work in science, but the requirement is so flexible as to be almost meaningless.

To put the matter in another light, the curriculum of the school has been broken into three parts. After the Freshman year, the program "is divided into three major curriculums": college-preparatory or nursing-preparatory, business, and general. Beyond

the Freshman year, the only common elements of these programs are English and physical education. In short, the school provides not a well-rounded, carefully integrated program of general education but three separate programs having a slight and inadequate common element and each splintered by electives and alternatives to a degree which makes a coherent and interrelated course of study impossible.

The school studied by the authors has simply drifted with the tide of secondary-school education. An analysis of that drift indicates the importance of reconsideration of secondary-school policies and programs.

The American educational system, taken as a whole, has three functions to perform: (1) It must eliminate illiteracy; that is, it must provide for all citizens an opportunity to learn to read, to write, and to reckon. The three R's have, consequently, been the chief responsibility of the elementary school. (2) At the other extreme it must meet the demands of modern society for competent specialists, professional men, and technicians. Modern society is highly and increasingly specialized. Many of its important benefits, particularly the increase of our material productivity, depend on increasingly specialized activities. The fact is obvious and has an important bearing on education, for one of the responsibilities of education is the training of competent specialists. This responsibility the professional schools, such as schools of law and medicine,

and the specialized departments of our colleges and universities undertake to discharge. At a lower level it is discharged by trade schools and technical high schools. (3) Between these two parts of our educational system—the one devoted to the prevention of illiteracy chiefly by instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic; the other, to training for a special occupation or profession—there is urgent need in a democracy for a third part, whose function it is to provide American youth with the knowledge and with the habits of reflection that they need in order to use wisely the freedom with which in a democracy they will be intrusted and to reach sound judgments concerning the problems which they will face as men and women and as citizens.

THE TASK OF GENERAL EDUCATION

The members of a democratic community face two kinds of problems: those confronting individuals in the carrying-out of the tasks which they assume in their special places in society as doctors, lawyers, businessmen, engineers, and so on; and those confronting all men, not as specialists, but as men and as citizens—the common ethical problems of men and those questions concerning city, state, and national affairs which are decided in a democracy by majority opinion or judgment.

It is for the handling of these common problems that general education seeks to prepare students. The health,

and in these difficult days, the very life of a democratic community depend largely on the success with which this task of education is carried out. The present tendency of our educational system to develop amazingly able specialists without giving them a general and liberal education is a serious threat to democracy. How shall the people of the nation settle wisely their great general problems without a common knowledge of the values which men have cherished and of the way by which men have tried to secure and maintain those values? The trouble with Germany in the late 1930's was a lack not of technical skill and professional proficiency but of this kind of wisdom, the kind of wisdom which it is the purpose of general and liberal education to provide. In its absence the most expert specialists may easily become the tools of selfish and designing leaders or of leaders at least as blind and ignorant as themselves.

Unfortunately, the important work of the high schools and the colleges of America in preparing our youth to meet the problems that they will face as men and as citizens is now being very badly done. Almost everyone at all concerned about education talks about the crisis in education. Mrs. Pearl Wanamaker, the former president of the National Education Association, has declared that "the school situation has deteriorated," and the United States Commissioner of Education speaks of "the present crisis in education" and calls for "the

kind of education necessary to sustain our free way of life."

CAUSES OF FAILURE OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL EDUCATION

The recognition of the failure of education is a hopeful sign, but there is little indication that the reasons for our failure are perceived or that adequate remedies are being discovered. Debates proceed at such superficial levels as contrasting "classical" with "progressive" education. Proposals for improvement seldom go beyond such suggestions as that teachers' salaries should be increased in order to entice superior persons to enter the teaching profession. What is necessary, first of all, is the uncovering of the causes of our failure in education. Chief among these are the departmentalizing of education, the rise of vocationalism, the elective system, and the dependence on textbooks.

As subject matters have been developed for the education of specialists and the convenience of research, they have been progressively compartmentalized. The numerous separate departments of colleges and universities represent and tend to confirm this process. As demands for more highly trained teachers have increased, often through formal state certification requirements, teachers have more and more been trained to handle specialized aspects of subject matter. Graduate study, as has often been remarked, tends to the discovery of "more and more about less and less." Secondary-school curriculums

have, in turn, come more and more to reflect the splintering of subjects into separate and discrete pieces. Oddly enough, one consequence of this process of departmentalization has been belated exaggeration of it at the secondary-school and the college levels. In the great research centers of the country, for example, chemistry, physics, and biology are increasingly interrelated as scholars and research workers in each of these areas find that their problems overlap. The rise of departments of biochemistry, of biophysics, and of radio-biology are the results of this discovery. But the older lines of separation tend to maintain themselves in secondary schools and colleges, producing at these levels unnecessarily elaborate, unrealistic, and ineffective curriculums.

Coupled with this cause of confusion in secondary schools is the movement toward vocational training. On the plea of practical preparation for life, courses in a wide variety of "practical" subjects, ranging from book-keeping and journalism to beauty-parlor practice and gasoline service station management, have been added to, or have replaced, the courses providing a general and liberal education. These newer courses are often ineffective, lagging behind the rapid changes of techniques in various occupations. They are generally thin in content. Their most serious fault, however, is that they deprive students of what they most need as human beings and as citizens—a liberal education.

Since both departmentalization and

vocationalism swell the curriculum, multiplying many times the number of courses offered, a third cause of disintegration in education has come into operation—the elective system. Schools have become educational cafeterias providing a bewildering variety of dishes, from which the student is permitted to select what appeals to his taste. He can hardly be blamed for selecting unwisely and thus failing to attain healthy intellectual maturity. If his teachers are unable to determine what is essential to his education, it is unreasonable to expect that he will be able to do so. One consequence of this situation is that a high-school diploma may represent so many different kinds of education that it is almost meaningless. The student who has secured a well-rounded general education, who has acquired some knowledge of history, some competence in mathematics, some grasp of social and economic problems, some ability to understand and appreciate literature and the arts, some command of a foreign language, some understanding of science, some skill in expressing himself clearly and forcefully receives the same kind of diploma that is handed the student who has spent all but a small portion of his four years in high school taking courses in typewriting, stenography, and bookkeeping, or in cooking, sewing, and shopping, or in manual training and shop practices. This fact is depressing evidence of our confusion about the purpose of secondary-school education.

All three of these causes of disinte-

gration in education are reflected in the role given textbooks in high schools and colleges. As each new subject is added to the curriculum, textbook publishers rush to produce a volume for classroom use. If it is decided to offer a course in business to acquaint students in an elementary way with such a collection of things as checking accounts, budgets, the advantages of thrift, sending telegrams, and travel information, a publisher will promptly put together a textbook for the purpose. But it is not only in these courses that the cheapening of education in this way occurs. History and science are taught from textbooks, often attractively bound and illustrated, which present in an insipid and predigested form what it is supposed a student should memorize in these fields. The effect is to stifle the student's mind. He is neither challenged to think, nor forced to reflect, nor incited to reason. At worst, he is asked to memorize; at best, he is encouraged to make casual remarks from his limited experience on the points made in the textbook.

A CURRICULUM TO PROVIDE UNITY OF PURPOSE

If students are to receive a general education, these tendencies to departmentalization and vocationalism must be resisted, the consequence of departmentalization and vocationalism—the elective system—must be abandoned, and conventional textbooks must be replaced by more substantial and thought-provoking books. Many

schools can save themselves and at the same time provide leadership in the needed reforms of education by clarifying objectives and reconsidering methods of instruction. If the objective which the authors recommend—to provide a general or liberal education to enable young people to take their places as citizens of their community, state, and nation—is accepted, the next step is the planning of a program of studies. To achieve this objective, a curriculum with some unity of purpose and integration, not a haphazard collection of courses, is essential.

The problem is to select, from among the many subjects which in varying degrees might be useful for the purposes of liberal education, those which will be most useful and to work out the best ways of teaching them. There is not time to do everything. A case might well be made for providing four years of English literature and composition; a year of art; a year of music; three years of history; a year of government, economics, and sociology; three years of one foreign language and two of another (as required for entrance to several leading women's colleges); four years of mathematics; two years of the physical sciences; and one year of the biological sciences. But mere addition reveals that such a curriculum calls for twenty-two one-year courses—six more than a four-year high-school program can generally include.¹ It is necessary

¹ The choice of sixteen one-year courses is not an automatic acceptance of the traditional

either to resort to the elective system, which puts upon the student the problem of selection and makes it impossible for the faculty to build an integrated program of study, or to select what for the purposes of general education is most important.

The proposed curriculum shown below provides the essentials of general education.

There is no reason for differentiating the course of study for those going on to college and for those whose education will end with high school. History is a necessary part of education for good citizenship. It should provide the student not only with a frame of historical reference and with an understanding of the events which have shaped the world in which he

A PROPOSED CURRICULUM

First Year Grade IX	Second Year Grade X	Third Year Grade XI	Fourth Year Grade XII
Humanities I Literature, Art, and Writing (6 hours)	Humanities II Literature, Music, and Writing (6 hours)	Humanities III Literature, Art, and Writing (5 hours)	Humanities IV Literature, Music, and Writing (5 hours)
General History I (4 hours)	General History II (4 hours)	American Institu- tions I (5 hours)	American Institu- tions II (5 hours)
Mathematics I (5 hours)	Mathematics II (5 hours)	Mathematics III First half-year Physical Science I Second half-year (5 hours)	Physical Science II (6 hours)
Foreign Language I (5 hours)	Foreign Language II (5 hours)	Biology I (5 or 6 hours)	Foreign Language III or Special-Interest Work (4 or 5 hours)

SOCIAL STUDIES

A four-year sequence of courses in what is commonly called "Social Studies" is recommended; two years which might be entitled "General History" and two years which might be entitled "American Institutions." An integrated program of work in the area of the social sciences is of particular importance to high-school edu-

pattern of "sixteen units." Examination of the proposed curriculum and the activities proposed as extra-curriculum will indicate the authors' intention to utilize all available time.

lives but also with an insight into the causes which operate in human affairs. The work in history may well be begun with a two-year course (meeting four hours weekly in each year) in general history and geography. By "general history" is meant world history, with emphasis on the growth of Europe but without neglect of the non-Western civilizations of Asia. The explorations and the settlement of North America should be treated at an appropriate point, but emphasis on, and development of, American

history and institutions should be left to the last two years of the student's program.

A two-year course in world history and geography cannot "cover" everything. The course should center attention on time, place, and the role of human purpose and thought. In the first place, the student needs a chronology and geography. He needs to know when things happened; when, in relation to the time span of mankind's development, human beings attempted various solutions of such problems as subsistence, communication, and the formation of societies; and he needs to locate various societies, civilizations, and cultures on the globe. The student not only should grasp times, places, and events but should learn to see history as a record of the attempts of men to improve themselves and their conditions. The course should deal with Western Europe and the Americas, Eastern Europe and Russia, the Near East, India, and the Far East; but major attention should be given to the history of the Western world. Emphasis should be placed not on strange and various cultures but on the common aspirations, circumstances, and problems of mankind, and especially on the considerations that in different ages and places have led men to make the decisions which shaped the institutions and the events of various cultures. Such study would explain the particular institutions and actions of mankind in different times and places in such a way as to provide the basis for an understanding of peoples and societies other than our own.

The building of a two-year course to do these things will not be easy, since no models for it can be pointed out. It will take careful planning. If a mere textbook course of the conventional "ancient, medieval, and modern" history variety is to be avoided, there must be careful consideration of reading materials in geography and history. Instead of textbook materials students should read such things as Herodotus on the conflict of the Greeks and the Persians, Thucydides on the wars of the Greek city states, and Plutarch's *Lives*. Such materials will be not only more interesting and exciting for the student than conventional textbooks but much more illuminating and incomparably superior in providing ideas, inducing thought, and developing habits and powers of reflection and judgment.

The prescription for the last two years of work in social studies, American Institutions I and II (five hours weekly each year), is in some ways easier than that for the first two years. The general objective for this part of the curriculum is the promotion of intelligent citizenship through the study of some of the leading ideas which have expressed and influenced the culture of the American people. On the basis of the understanding of the events of world history which would be provided in the two preceding years, it should be possible in two years to develop a basic understanding of American history and of contemporary American social and political problems.

The first year would be given to

American history, and the second to the particular problems which our own democracy faces today. The first course should be organized around critical decisions in American history—the decision to declare our independence as a nation, the formation of the Constitution, the conflict between the North and the South, and the various attempts to resolve the conflicts of business and labor, for instance. In each case, students should read the writings of Americans which record the debates over these issues: Franklin, Paine, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Adams, for example, and Calhoun, Lincoln, and important decisions of the Supreme Court. Through the study of such materials they should come to understand the decisions of the nation as the results of deliberation, rather than as the results merely of historical "movements" or "trends."

The course in contemporary problems should deal with the basic structure of our political, economic, and social system. In both years of study of American institutions, the materials for study (always keeping the capacity of the student in mind) should be drawn primarily from original documents.

THE HUMANITIES AND FOREIGN LANGUAGES

A program of general education must not be limited to the social and scientific aspects of our civilization. Human beings are individuals as well as citizens, and they are beneficiaries of an inheritance of achievements of

human thought, imagination, and creative energy in literature and the arts, as well as beneficiaries of man's achievements in mastering the natural world. Art, music, and literature must, therefore, constitute an important part of the curriculum.

These subjects ought not, we believe, be presented in separate courses. This judgment is based both on the nature of the subject and on practical pedagogical considerations. Not only are music, art, and literature closely related as humanistic subjects, but extensive "home work" in the first two is impracticable while the last, literature, may demand a good deal of it. It is recommended, therefore, that the three be combined in a single course and, further, that the present practice of combining English—writing—with the study of literature be continued and extended to art and music. One of the most troublesome difficulties of courses in writing has always been the provision of substantial and interesting subject matter for writing. Attachment of training in writing to subject-matter courses is one solution of the difficulty and has the added advantage of supplementing and reinforcing instruction in the subject matter by forcing students to reconsider it and clarify it in their minds for the purposes of writing about it.

Six periods a week should be set aside in the first and the second years of the program, and five periods a week in the third and fourth years, for art, music, literature, and English. During the first and the third years

art and literature, and during the second and fourth years music and literature, would be combined with English. More specifically, two periods a week in the first year would be given to art, and four periods a week to literature and English.

Training in writing requires long and constant practice in writing. Although the student need not write long papers, he must write regularly and frequently over a considerable period of time to develop even a fair measure of skill in composition, and his work must be constantly subjected to criticism. Four periods a week through the four years of high school are needed to develop good habits of writing and to provide the basis for an understanding and appreciation of literature. This last, in an age of pulp magazines and cheap movies, not to mention comic strips, is an essential part of a liberal education.

The objectives of instruction in literature, and in music and art as well, should be practical rather than antiquarian. The history of literature and the arts is an interesting, but at this stage of education not an essential, subject. It should yield place to the effort to develop understanding and appreciation of books, music, and art and, in the case of art, be directed not merely toward museum art but toward such objects as architecture and furniture. Students should, first of all, learn what to look for in a painting, what to listen for in a piece of music, what to give attention to in a novel, play, or poem. Not the least important part of their work should consist in

learning to know some of the outstanding achievements in literature, music, and the arts. The learning of some great poems, a knowledge of some great novels, familiarity with some great paintings and some great musical compositions not only will provide the student with a lifelong source of pleasure but will do much to increase sensitivity to literature and the arts, discipline taste in these matters, and provide bases of comparative judgments.

To achieve these purposes, students should contemplate and discuss paintings, listen to and analyze music, read and study excellent works of fiction and poetry. They should be led constantly to write as correctly and clearly as possible about their firsthand experience with literature and the arts. They should not be directed to read *about* great writers nor permitted to abstract for their papers the materials from such writings. Ideally, the English course should also draw, for exercises in writing, on the materials of the history and the science courses, though such integration of the curriculum will need to be worked out gradually.

Foreign languages have long been a battleground of educational theorists. The present low estimation of the value of foreign-language study is largely a consequence of the poor quality of instruction of a generation ago. In an earlier period foreign languages had been used to open up to students important literatures and cultures. They came to be taught as an end in themselves or, in the case of some

modern foreign languages, as instruments for South American trade or conveniences for European travel. Rightly taught, they have several important functions to perform, quite apart from meeting college-entrance requirements. For one thing, they provide a unique opportunity for insight into the nature of language and its important role in a rapidly shrinking world. For another thing, they are useful instruments for increasing the student's command of English and his understanding of the structure of his own language. Finally, they open up the literature and culture of other nations and peoples. We therefore recommend, in the requirements for the diploma, inclusion of two years of work in a foreign language and, for students who desire it, provision for a third year of work. We are certain that Latin, French, and German should be offered but would omit Spanish from the offerings.

MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE

The curriculum in mathematics and the natural sciences calls for a total of five years of work—two and one-half years of mathematics and two and one-half years of science. By the time the student enters Grade IX, it is assumed that he has acquired reasonable facility in the solution of arithmetical problems. Unfortunately, the assumption is not invariably justified. It is recommended, therefore, that Mathematics I begin with a vigorous review of elementary-school arithmetic. If this is done well, little time need be lost, because work in algebra

can well begin as a logical extension and generalization of arithmetic. A sharpened sense of understanding of the number system is then possible. With the development of the algebra the student can be taught that abstract thinking is an invaluable tool in the solution of practical problems.

The second year of mathematics should be devoted to plane geometry, with emphasis on the logical structure of the subject. Geometry provides a logical system which the secondary-school student is perfectly able to comprehend. The first semester in the third year should, we think, again be devoted to a further development of algebra. In this half-year's work it might be well to emphasize that algebra can be developed as a logical system comparable to geometry, that is, a system consisting of undefined terms, postulates, definitions, and theorems. For students going to college this return to the subject will do something toward keeping the mathematical processes actively in mind, and it will provide for all students a base for some of the work in the physical sciences to follow.

The second course in algebra should be followed by a year and a half of work in the physical sciences. This course of a unit and a half should attempt a systematic presentation of the principles of the physical sciences. The subject matter of astronomy, chemistry, geology and physical geography, meteorology, and physics should contribute to the course: (1) an understanding of the difficulties involved in gaining knowledge of the natural

world and the methods that man has used in attaining it; (2) a limited appreciation of these methods and an assessment of them; and (3) knowledge of some of the currently accepted solutions to the problems posed by the physical world. We emphasize here that the larger objectives of general education must prevail; this course alone cannot make a physicist or a chemist. It is more important for the student to learn what kinds of problems the physicist investigates, how he formulates them, and by what method he seeks to solve them, than to memorize a set of generally accepted facts or theories of physics.

A year course in biology should be offered to be taken in either Grade XI or XII. In other words, it may be taken at the same time as Mathematics III and Physical Sciences I, or it can be taken with Physical Sciences II. Biology I should be planned with objectives similar to those outlined for the physical sciences. Knowledge of the activities, structures, and life cycles of a variety of plants and animals is an essential basis for thought about the broader problems of biology. During the early months of the course, this basis should be established by a study of representative plants and animals systematically arranged. The reasons for the classification system should be carefully considered. At intervals time should be taken to summarize and interpret the knowledge gained and to develop a reasonable understanding of important life-processes and their interrelations. The remainder of the course can

then be built into an integrated sequence by careful selection of material from physiology, embryology, genetics, evolution, bacteriology, and ecology. Elementary chemical and physical principles should be taught briefly or reviewed when they are needed. Because of the contributions that chemistry and physics make to an understanding of biology, some advantage will be gained by students who take biology in the fourth year.

In both physical sciences and biology the content material should be made real by as much observation of natural phenomena as can be arranged. Class discussions should be illustrated by carefully prepared exhibits and demonstrations. A real grasp of the problems which scientists face and of some of their methods of attacking them can best be gained by the assignment of not less than one hour a week, preferably two, to the investigation in the laboratory of problems which have not yet been taken up in the reading material. Such work should be carried on, not with the idea of perfectly verifying or duplicating the results of scientists, but for the purpose of seeing how problems are discovered and attacked, what complications are invariably present, and how data may be studied mathematically and otherwise to arrive at a conclusion.

ADMINISTERING THE PROGRAM

If a curriculum of the kind proposed in this article is to be put into successful operation, it will be necessary to arrange for effective co-operation of the group of teachers assigned

to each course. The group handling American history and institutions, for example, should be organized as a staff under a chairman or director, who will preside at weekly meetings given to planning the program as a whole, formulating objectives and devising means for achieving them, reviewing the past week's work to discover causes of success or failure, laying out in detail the program for the following week, discussing teaching procedures, and devising exercises and tests.

Course examinations, that is, examinations administered at the end of each year's work, should be the same for each student in a given subject. Thus, for example, the same examination would be taken by all students in General History I. This scheme will tend to keep sections of a given subject taught by different teachers together in pursuit of set objectives, as measured by the common examination, although permitting individual teachers to use particular methods in the classroom.

The basic curriculum outlined above does not provide for electives. Every student ought, we are convinced, to carry the program of work there outlined. The curriculum does, however, provide time in the third or fourth year, when only three courses would be required, for carrying a subject over and above the demands for graduation. This subject might be taken to meet college-entrance requirements (as in the case of a third year of language), or to satisfy some

special interest of the student (as an advanced course in art or music), or to prepare for a job (as a course in business). Superior students might carry such a course in their third year and add another special course as a fifth subject in their fourth year in school.

VOCATIONAL PREPARATION

The authors recognize that a considerable number of students in the typical secondary school are interested in business training or in aspects of homemaking or of manual training or shopwork, etc., or in special work in art or music. Courses of these kinds ought not to be substituted for parts of the program of general education outlined above. They can be permitted to do so only by amputating that program and rendering impossible the welding of its parts into a carefully integrated whole. The four years of work in the social studies, for example, cannot be integrated properly if some students take only parts of it, parts which must for them therefore be self-contained or incomplete.

We therefore recommend that courses in business be reduced to those essential for securing a position and courses in homemaking be reduced to those most immediately useful; and that these courses be scheduled as extra-curriculum activities rather than as work for credit toward a diploma. They should be given in the afternoon following the seventh period of the day.² Students could either carry them

²The proposed daily "time schedule" calls for seven fifty-minute periods.

as fifth subjects during one or more of their four years in the school or plan to spend a fifth year in school to secure both the regular work of the school and the additional special training provided by those courses. Since the work of these courses would carry no credit toward a diploma, it would be quite proper to recognize successful work in them by the award of an appropriate certificate of achievement.

The work in physical education should likewise be extra-curriculum.

THE STUDENT—AND THE COMMUNITY

Each student in the school should be assigned to a faculty adviser, or counselor. Each "effective" member of the faculty should advise about thirty students. Given a favorable relationship between student and teacher, the assignment might carry through four years. With the problem of electives absent, the adviser could deal with social adjustments, extra-curriculum choices, vocations, study problems, special college requirements, etc. Arrangement should be made for an appropriate presentation of the objectives of the school and its curriculum for prospective students, for their parents, and for the community as a whole. The educational plan of the school and the reasons for it should be stated in an attractive and intelligible bulletin or announcement.

Such a bulletin should make clear, among other things, that the school recognizes the values of vocational

training and of physical and social activities, as well as of general or liberal education; but that it distinguishes between them with respect to their relative importance, regards general education as its primary responsibility, and proposes to avoid confusion by distinguishing between the ends and the means of the three, and by providing an appropriate place and appropriate rewards for each. Thus it would make the curriculum an instrument of general education and award diplomas only for achievement in general education. It would provide extra-curriculum courses in vocational subjects and award appropriate certificates, as recommendations to employers, of achievements in these training courses. It would encourage useful physical and social activities among its students with whatever awards in the way of emblems and school honors such activities might merit. It would not offer a hodgepodge of courses, including physical education and vocational training, nor award diplomas for a wide variety of selections from them.

We believe that such a policy, put into effect through a curriculum of the kind outlined, would "make sense" to parents and to the community as a whole and that it would command no little attention and respect outside the local community, especially among the many people, educators and laymen alike, who are greatly troubled by the present failure of the secondary schools of the country in this critical period in our history.

A SEARCH FOR EVIDENCE THAT GUIDANCE IN SCHOOL PREVENTS DELINQUENCY IN ADULTS

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CAUSES OF CRIME

THE causes of crime are myriad and too complex to permit the blame for them to be placed on one social force or individual source. To blame the school for the current high rate of crime, for instance, would be to discount the influences of the home, the church, the community, the recreational programs—in fact, the influences of all the social forces at work in the incidental or accidental education of the American citizen today.

Within the school, however, has flowered a new concept of the function of education: "The central function of the schools is guidance . . . schools must guide or else the rest is not effective.¹ The guidance program co-ordinates the parental, the community, and the recreational influences with the objectives of the school.

Does this new concept of education challenge the rising crime rate in America? Can educators, armed with a program of guidance, prevent delinquency? In launching a search for evi-

dence that guidance in school prevents delinquency in adults, the writer wished to discover whether this phase of education provides the answer to the criminologists' search for a preventive of, not an antidote to, crime. If education can serve this purpose, when should the preventive treatment be applied?

In an effort to find evidence, a set of problems was drawn up:

1. Do all delinquent adults show tendencies of delinquency during their school careers?
2. Does guidance in school prevent delinquency in adults?
3. Does vocational dissatisfaction in adulthood contribute toward adult delinquency?
4. At what educational level should the guidance program begin in order to prevent delinquency?

THE STUDY

The subjects.—One hundred persons who had been placed on probation in the Municipal Court of Marion County, Indiana, upon conviction for committing an offense against the law, were interviewed. The interviews were planned, but not stereotyped, with a view toward re-

¹ Henry W. Holmes, "The Nation Challenges the Schools," *Atlantic Monthly*, CLXV (January, 1940), 23.

ceiving the answers to certain questions:

1. Had the interviewee ever been a defendant in juvenile court during his school career?
2. While a student in school, had the interviewee ever been sent to, or summoned by, the school principal for misbehavior?
3. Had the interviewee any knowledge of having received guidance during his school career?
4. Is the interviewee satisfied with his present life-career?
5. What educational level was reached by the person interviewed?

Since these persons had been placed on probation after conviction for committing some offense, they were considered delinquent. They were not, however, seasoned criminals, because only misdemeanors fall within the jurisdiction of the Municipal Court of Marion County. These probationers were not informed that they were the subjects of a special study. The questions were incorporated into the conversations normally conducted by the writer with persons placed on probation.

One hundred non-delinquent persons were asked the same questions and may be considered the control group. Persons were considered non-delinquent if they had never been arrested or had never appeared as defendants in juvenile court. Of course, these persons might have been delinquent but never have been caught. Yet their social controls and their amenity to convention must have been stronger than their delinquency, or they would have had some court

experience. Like those of the delinquent group, the persons interviewed were from all walks of life. For instance, teachers, probation officers, businessmen, a doctor, and two undertakers were among the non-delinquent group; but there were more housewives, office and store clerks, factory workers, soda-counter helpers, and filling-station attendants to match the delinquent group, which contained few professional and business persons and a great number of housewives, laborers, waitresses, clerks, junk dealers, and factory workers. An effort was made to include an equal number of delinquent and non-delinquent veterans.

Because they were approached casually, most of the non-delinquent persons were unaware that they were being subjected to an examination of their school experiences, but some of the members of a seminar class and some colleagues of the writer at work did know that they were being questioned for this study.

Limitations of the study.—The greatest limitation of this particular study is its subjectiveness. Each person's word was accepted on his responses to all questions. Care was taken to assure reliability of the responses by re-wording some of the questions if the interviewee seemed not to understand the original meaning, but the study still remained subjective.

Except for the teachers who were interviewed, the interviewees needed a definition of the term "guidance."

As a rule, the interviewees recognized as guidance the help that they had received in vocational problems, but they had not regarded it specifically as "guidance."

It has been suggested that, by painstaking explanation, illustration, or demonstration of the meaning of guidance, the writer might have generated in the interviewee's mind a false idea that guidance had been experienced by the interviewee. Perhaps this idea is correct. Yet, even if it is true, the interviewees, both delinquent and non-delinquent, were equally questioned and equally accorded the fullest explanations. It would seem, therefore, that a compensating error would result rather than invalidity of the study.

Another limitation is that not all persons who were interviewed were products of the local schools. The mobility of American society was evident in the wide variety of places from which the interviewees had come and in which they had received their education.

The age span of the persons interviewed also minimized the value of the study. For honest weight of the value of the formal guidance in school, the interviewees should have been in school since the establishment of the organized guidance service. However, the delinquents were questioned as routine cases and were not selected by age. Although an effort was made to question non-delinquents who were of the same ages as the delinquents, an exact comparison was not attained.

As the study progressed, the writer became dubious about the actual time at which formal guidance had been established in the local school system. It was found that a central guidance director for all schools had been in existence in this city for only three years. On the other hand, at least one local high school (Arsenal Technical High School) has had an organized guidance program for twenty years, and other secondary schools, one by one, have included the organized service as an established school function in the years since that time. The local school office was unable to furnish information with regard to the exact years during which children could be expected to have been acquainted with formal guidance in school.

So many limitations became evident as the study advanced that its value on completion seemed insignificant. Yet there is some value in even a "straw in the wind"; for such weak evidence may be the first token of a trend whose value, on observation, may grow in volume and increase in momentum until the fluttering "straw" emerges, a sure signpost, pointing the way in which guidance in school may prevent delinquency in adults.

Definition of terms.—The following definitions of terms were used in this study:

GUIDANCE: "An organized service designed to give systematic aid to pupils in making adjustments to various types of problems which they must meet—educa-

tional, vocational, health, moral, social, civic, and personal.²

This definition of formal guidance was advanced, after considerable weighing of other definitions, for presenting an ideal toward which to aim in a guidance class at Butler University. It is one of several definitions quoted in the introduction of *Guidance Practices at Work* by Erickson and Happ.³

In the present study it was found that a separate classification was necessary. Guidance, to meet the demands of its definition and to function as an organized service, must be recognizable by the student, so that the aim of guidance, which is self-guidance, may be accomplished. However, the persons interviewed for this study fell into a wide span of age groups. The older persons did not experience a formal guidance program because they went to school before this type of program was organized. Many younger persons could not recognize guidance in a formal guise as having been in evidence during their school experience. Nevertheless, among them all, incidental guidance was remembered. For example, a teacher had talked with them after school about their future careers; a professor had told a youth that he was better with his hands than with his books; a girl had been inspired to study after hours for a business career when she had been economically unable to continue her academic training. This incidental guidance may be described as the informal, unsystematic, unorganized, or even accidental, aid given by members of the school personnel to pupils in helping them to meet their problems.

DELINQUENCY: Social maladjustment that has caused the arrest and conviction of a person for some offense against the law. In the cases under study all the offenses were misdemeanors.

ADULT: Any person over sixteen years of age. Although, biologically, sixteen-year-olds

² Clifford E. Erickson and Marion Crosley Happ, *Guidance Practices at Work*, p. 5. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1946.

³ *Ibid.*

are considered adolescent, they are answerable to this adult court for some offenses.

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL: The grade attained by the interviewee before leaving school or, if the person was still in school, the grade that he had attained or already completed.

REVIEW OF SIMILAR STUDIES

Before the evidence compiled in this study is advanced, it may be well to introduce evidence that other persons are also seeking for similar answers to the problem at hand. Some of the current material on the subject is, therefore, briefly summarized.

*Children in the Community*⁴ describes an experiment carried on in St. Paul, in an area which had a higher crime rate than any other district of the city. Since the city had no plan of guidance and no school social workers, a child-guidance service was organized outside the school proper. One social worker was assigned to act as a coordinator between the guidance service and the school, so that the school could co-operate in the guidance treatment. The report presents specific case histories, and, as a final proof of the advantages of guidance in preventing delinquency, tables are set up showing that, in the experimental crime-ridden area, delinquency had decreased whereas in the city as a whole, and also in the county, the crime rate had risen. Because the emphasis was on social work, rather than on the teacher's opportunities with guidance, this

⁴ Sybil A. Stone, Elsa Castendyck, and Harold B. Hanson, *Children in the Community*. United States Children's Bureau Publication No. 317. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1946.

experiment did not wholly satisfy the writer's expectation that the guidance which prevented crime could stem from the school. However, the school diagnosed the need for guidance and aided in applying it.

*A Survey concerning Juvenile Delinquency*⁵ is a study of 325 court cases of juvenile delinquents. The findings reveal that delinquency began as early as six years of age and as late as fourteen; that seven of ten delinquents had at least average mental ability; that four of ten records of juvenile delinquents showed retardation in school, some as much as four years' retardation. Of ten delinquents, seven had been discipline problems in school, and one out of three were serious discipline problems in school. One out of three juvenile delinquents had normal homes. The highest ranking offense for boys was stealing; for girls, running away. The conclusion is that there is a need for competent guidance of boys and girls in the elementary schools.

*Constructive Programs To Reduce and Prevent Juvenile Delinquency*⁶ describes the recreation projects of two cities in Indiana that provided supervised recreation under school control and thereby reduced the rate of delinquency. This is an expository account of co-curriculum guidance in action.

⁵ *A Survey concerning Juvenile Delinquency*. Bulletin No. 13. Indianapolis, Indiana: State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1944.

⁶ *Constructive Programs To Reduce and Prevent Juvenile Delinquency*. Bulletin No. 162. Indianapolis, Indiana: State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1945.

THE DATA

The delinquents.—Because not all the interviewees in the present study had had the benefit of formal guidance, the data were arranged by age groups. Table I presents the responses to questions regarding juvenile-court records, misbehavior while in school, guidance experience, and present job satisfaction.

Of the one hundred adult delinquents, twenty-three had juvenile-court records, and seventy-seven had none. Less than a fourth, then, of the delinquent adults had, as children, been considered delinquent before the law. Of the one hundred adult delinquents, fifty-four had been sent to, or summoned by, the school principal for misbehavior. Such infraction of school regulations may be considered a tendency toward delinquency, but it cannot be absolutely so labeled because youthful mischief and other causes often precipitate meetings with principals. The wide variation of the disciplinary functions exerted by the principals in different schools makes this a weak criterion of incipient delinquency.

Although principals and other administrative officers of a school are natural agents of formal guidance, the delinquent interviewees did not associate their trips to the principal's office with guidance. For example, seventeen of the twenty youngest delinquents had been before the principal for misbehavior, but twelve of these twenty persons claimed to have had no guidance experience in school.

With respect to guidance received by delinquent adults during their school careers, sixty-two claimed to have received none; eighteen recognized that formal guidance had been experienced; and twenty thought that incidental guidance had been given.

longest, until 1935. The youngest of the interviewees would have been in elementary and secondary schools from 1937 to the present time. Some of the persons who were in school between 1923 and the present time were, in theory at least, exposed to formal

TABLE 1

RESPONSES OF ONE HUNDRED DELINQUENTS UNDER COURT JURISDICTION AND OF ONE HUNDRED NON-DELINQUENTS TO QUESTIONS PERTAINING TO JUVENILE-COURT RECORDS, MISBEHAVIOR WHILE IN SCHOOL, GUIDANCE EXPERIENCE, AND PRESENT JOB SATISFACTION

Age	JUVENILE-COURT RECORD		CALLED TO PRINCIPAL'S OFFICE		GUIDANCE EXPERIENCE IN SCHOOL			PRESENT JOB SATISFACTION		NUMBER OF CASES
	Yes	No	Yes	No	None	Formal	Incidental	Yes	No	
Delinquents:										
16-19.....	8	12	17	3	12	3	5	1	19	20
20-24.....	10	19	18	11	8	12	9	29	29
25-29.....	5	15	9	11	12	3	5	3	17	20
30-34.....	11	9	2	10	1	1	10	11
35-39.....	4	1	3	4	1	3	4
40 and up.....	16	16	16	16	5	11	16
Total.....	23	77	54	46	62	18	20	11	89	100
Non-delinquents:										
16-19.....	6	14	15	5	6	14	20
20-24.....	9	12	2	10	9	7	10	14	21	21
25-29.....	7	4	4	5	2	10	1	12	3	11
30-34.....	9	6	4	1	10	12	8	11	3	15
35-39.....	9	5	6	8	11	3	11	3	14
40 and up.....	6	13	13	6	11	8	8	13	19
Total.....	46	54	29	31	40	57	43	100

The age grouping has value. All the persons (eighteen) who recognized formal guidance as such and nineteen of the twenty who received incidental guidance were among the sixty-nine delinquents younger than thirty years of age. Thus the oldest of this group must have entered school in approximately 1923 and have been in elementary and secondary schools, at the

guidance in the schools of Indianapolis. However, it must be noted that many of these persons did not receive local schooling and that most of them did not attain the educational level of Grade XII.

It is really not stretching a point, therefore, to take these 69 persons under thirty years of age as 100 per cent. Thus, the 18 delinquents who re-

ceived formal guidance are 26 per cent of the total who are presumed to have been in school at a time when formal guidance was a part of the school service.

The question of whether vocational dissatisfaction in adulthood contributes toward delinquency may seem beside the issue; for it may be said that adult dissatisfaction cannot be changed in the school years before the person is adult or dissatisfied. The subject is treated in this study, however, because formal guidance in school should aim toward adult satisfaction for the child who is then in school. The job of an adult demands most of his energy and usually one-half of his waking hours. If the pupil in school were led, through vocational guidance, toward the occupation for which he has ability, interest, and aptitude, he might be saved later dissatisfaction, grief, mental unrest, and even crime.

Brewer says, "Vocational life gone wrong is often at the basis of crime."⁷ Table 1 shows that eighty-nine of the hundred delinquents were dissatisfied with their current occupations. Eleven expressed satisfaction with their jobs. Of these eleven, seven were thirty or older, no longer imbued with a youth's general trial-and-error enthusiasm. After the age of thirty, too, many persons' responsibilities are so heavy that their attitudes toward their jobs are expressions of gratitude that they have work rather than criti-

cisms of the occupations for not satisfying their urges for happiness. Perhaps, then, this satisfaction on the part of the older group is but habit. However, this point would be applicable also to the non-delinquent persons who were interviewed.

The non-delinquents.—Table 1 presents also the responses of the non-delinquent persons to the same questions asked of the delinquent interviewees, with the exception that, since none of the non-delinquents had been defendants in any juvenile or adult court, questions about court records were not asked of this group.

Of the non-delinquent persons, forty-six had been sent to, or summoned by, the school principal for misbehavior, while fifty-four had not had this experience. These figures are the exact opposites of those for delinquent persons.

Whether there is correlation between trips to the principal's office and the formal guidance program is not here clearly shown. Certainly more of the younger non-delinquents recognized formal guidance as part of their school experience, and many of these younger interviewees had been haled before the principal for misbehavior. Of the one hundred non-delinquents, twenty-nine claimed to have received no guidance; thirty-one recognized formal guidance as having been within their experience; and forty had received incidental guidance.

Again the age grouping furnishes a picture of "diminishing returns" as the ages of the subjects advance. Ex-

⁷ John M. Brewer, *Education as Guidance*, p. 60. New York: Macmillan Co., 1932.

cept for one person in the 30-34 age group, all those non-delinquents who recognized formal guidance as part of their school experience were younger than thirty years of age and thus probably had been in elementary and secondary schools between 1923 and the present time. If we consider as 100 per cent the 52 non-delinquent persons who were presumably attending school during the period that the receiving of formal guidance would have been a possibility, the 30 persons under thirty years of age who recognized formal guidance as part of their education comprise 57.7 per cent of the non-delinquent cases studied who could have received formal guidance during their school careers.

With respect to incidental guidance, the picture is not so clear. Many factors may, of course, enter into incidental guidance. These non-delinquent persons may owe their present wholesomeness to this incidental guidance. On the other hand, perhaps the delinquent persons' lack of wholesomeness is also due to their not standing out as responsive recipients of incidental guidance. Therefore it cannot be said that the incidental guidance was instrumental in making non-delinquents into normal or adjusted citizens nor that the lack of incidental guidance contributed to the delinquency of adult criminals.

The only true conclusions that can be drawn from the results here presented must be drawn from the responses of the persons who either had or had not received formal guidance.

Certainly it can be said that formal guidance is on the increase, as evidenced by both the delinquents' and the non-delinquents' responses. It can further be said that more non-delinquents than delinquents recognized formal guidance as part of their educational programs.

Non-delinquents were satisfied with their present occupations in fifty-seven cases. Of the forty-three dissatisfied persons, fourteen were thirty years of age or older.

Educational levels of delinquents and of non-delinquents.—Table 2 presents the educational level of the persons who were interviewed. None of the delinquents was still attending school of any kind. Not even the younger subjects, some of whom were veterans, were in school. Table 2 shows also that, of the one hundred delinquents interviewed, thirty-five did not progress beyond Grade VIII; sixty-eight did not advance beyond Grade X; and five had attained higher education. Thus it may be observed that the educational level of the delinquents is low.

Of the non-delinquents, thirty persons, veterans and non-veterans, were still attending school. Only sixteen of the non-delinquents stopped at Grade VIII, fifty had dropped out of school by the end of Grade X, and twenty-one received higher education.

There are experts who state that education in itself is guidance because it disciplines the mind and opens new channels of thought and ambition and because it inspires to worth and great-

ness. Lewisohn⁸ shows how an educational program in itself was successful in reforming five hundred prison inmates. The record of recidivism of these five hundred prisoners versus that of prison inmates who did not receive the benefits of this educational program proved his contention.

information on his subjects when his paper was printed.

Therefore, it may be contended that the present study proves, not the value of guidance, but the value of education as a force in preventing delinquency. However, a true guidance program includes in its objectives the

TABLE 2
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF ONE HUNDRED DELINQUENTS UNDER COURT
JURISDICTION AND OF ONE HUNDRED NON-DELINQUENTS
OF SIMILAR AGES

AGE	GRADE ATTAINED BEFORE LEAVING SCHOOL								STILL ATTENDING SCHOOL
	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	College and Busi- ness or Profes- sional	
Delinquents:									
16-19...			5	6	9				
20-24...	8		3	6	9	3			
25-29...		8	3	3			6		
30-34...		5		3		2		1	
35-39...					4				
40 and up...		9			3			4	
Total...	8		27	12	21	16	11	5	
Non-delinquents:									
16-19...				1	9		10		14
20-24...		4	4	3	3	3	4	6	
25-29...				3	1	2		5	4
30-34...		5	2			4	4	3	
35-39...				2	1	5		6	3
40 and up...	4	3	5	5				2	
Total...	4		12	12	22	5	24	21	30

Brookover⁹ states that education, as such, rehabilitated maladjusted soldiers during World War II and permitted their return to active duty. He was waiting to receive full follow-up

retention of students—the decrease of the school's drop-outs. It may have been the guidance toward more education that caused the non-delinquent persons to be normal and adjusted.

⁸ Sam A. Lewisohn, "Is Prison Reform Good Business?" Address delivered at the Sixty-sixth Annual Congress of the American Prison Association, Chicago, Illinois, September 16, 1936.

⁹ W. B. Brookover, "Education in the Rehabilitation of Maladjusted Personalities," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XX (February, 1947), 332-40.

A comparison of the educational levels attained by the delinquent persons and by the non-delinquent persons shows that, in order to retain students who as adults became delinquent—at least those interviewed for this study—the guidance program should begin before Grade VI; for, to be successful, an organized guidance program aimed toward preventing withdrawals from school could hardly begin at the verge of the children's dropping out. Therefore the formal guidance should begin long before Grade VI. In fact, it should begin at the very outset—in the primary grades—for guidance is not an act; it is a process.

CONCLUSIONS

Despite the limitations of this study and the small sampling, the following conclusions may be drawn:

1. Not all delinquent adults have shown tendencies of delinquency, as evidenced by being defendants in juvenile court, during their school careers.
2. For measuring tendencies toward delinquency during the school years, being sent to, or summoned by, the principal for misbehavior is no criterion of future delinquency. At least in the cases studied, this measurement proved inconclusive as evidence. Although fewer non-delinquents had made trips to the principal for misbehavior, the difference is so small that no absolute conclusion can be set forth from this evidence.
3. Guidance in school may be said

to prevent delinquency in adults. Nearly twice as many of the non-delinquents (31) as of the delinquents (18) claimed to have experienced formal guidance. The total numbers of persons within the age range during which formal guidance was an established service of the school were too few for an encompassing conclusion to be drawn. Nevertheless, enough evidence seemed apparent to conclude that guidance in school may be said to prevent delinquency in adults.

4. The evidence of this study indicates that vocational dissatisfaction in adulthood contributes to adult delinquency. Of the one hundred delinquents studied, eighty-nine were dissatisfied with their jobs, whereas only fifty-seven of the non-delinquents were dissatisfied. Of these fifty-seven non-delinquents, thirty were in the process of changing this situation to job satisfaction, if the fact that they were pursuing further knowledge can be taken as evidence of wishing to make a vocational change. None of the delinquents who were studied were furthering their education at the time that they were interviewed.

5. To prevent delinquency, the guidance program should begin in the elementary school, since thirty-five of the one hundred delinquents did not progress beyond Grade VIII and sixty-eight attained only Grade X or less. The process of guidance, to be effective, takes longer than the few years immediately preceding dropping out of school.

AN EXPERIMENT IN LEISURELY EATING OF SCHOOL LUNCHES

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MANY educators decry the manner in which school cafeterias are at present conducted. Furthermore, a casual observation of luncheon periods in high-school cafeterias in the northeastern section of New Jersey will reveal the following statements to be true: (1) Pupils generally eat either too little or too much. (2) Pupils' lunches are not well balanced nutritively. (3) Pupils eat too rapidly. (4) The total situation is not conducive to mannerly and healthful eating.

What facilities and conditions are necessary to make adequate and leisurely eating possible in the high-school cafeteria? The modest experiment reported here is an attempt to answer this question.

PROCEDURE

The experiment was carried on with the assistance of Alfred C. Ramsay, high-school principal in Glen Ridge; Mrs. John Pringle, cafeteria director; Mrs. R. H. Jones, home-economics teacher; and eight senior high school pupils, William Mulligan, Mary Oslin, Anthony Moran, Virginia Thompson, John Reynolds, Kay Salter, Bill Westcote, and Suzanne Scott. The eight pupils took charge of, and served, a

luncheon every day for a week. The pupils were invited to participate in the experiment and were to be rewarded by receiving a well-balanced, delicious, free luncheon each day.

The instructions to the manager of the cafeteria were detailed concerning what she should do. She planned the five luncheon menus as follows:

MONDAY: Vegetable soup, wiener on roll, succotash, sliced tomatoes, milk, ice cream

TUESDAY: Roast beef, string beans, mashed potatoes and gravy, milk, cake

WEDNESDAY: Chicken noodle soup, hot roast-beef sandwich, corn, creamed asparagus, milk, tapioca pudding

THURSDAY: Vegetable soup, macaroni and cheese, Harvard beets, peas, bread and butter, milk, apple pie

FRIDAY: Asparagus soup, pressed ham, potato salad, peas, carrots, bread and butter, milk, cake

A private conference room was set aside for conducting the experiment. The amount of floor space available, without undue crowding, was eighty-four square feet (12' X 7'). The table, seating eight, was three feet by six feet.

Prior to the first luncheon, a meeting was held at which the eight pupils were carefully instructed regarding

what they were to do. A different pupil from this group was to act as host and another as waiter each day, and at this meeting the student hosts and waiters for each day were named. The pupils were clearly told that they were to eat in a leisurely fashion but without dilly-dallying.

Before the first luncheon, each pupil received a copy of the daily assignment of hosts and waiters and a carefully prepared set of directions. The directions are listed in this article because they show the details of the procedure.

SUGGESTIONS TO HOSTS

1. Look happy.
2. Tell who is to get each plate when it is ready; for example, "Please pass this to Jane."
3. On each plate, place the meat first; then, the vegetables.
4. When everyone has finished a given course, ask that the dishes be passed to the waiter.
5. Remember that the host keeps the meal moving leisurely and effectively.

SUGGESTIONS TO WAITERS

1. Leave class five minutes before the bell rings.
2. After unfolding and laying a paper napkin at each place, set the table as indicated. [A diagram showing the proper method of setting a table was shown in the instruction sheet at this point.]
3. Bring the soup from the kitchen.
4. Place the soup at the places and remove the empty milk bottles.
5. Sit with the group to eat your soup.
6. Gather the empty soup dishes at the signal from the host (or hostess) and return them to the kitchen.
7. Return promptly with the main dishes

on a tray. Place them before the host (or hostess).

8. Take your seat and eat your main course.

9. Remove the dishes and carry them to the kitchen.

10. Bring the dessert to the host (or hostess).

11. Eat your own dessert after it has been served.

12. Remove the dishes.

13. Clear the table. Put the napkins in the wastebasket, the dishes and utensils on a tray, and wipe the table with a damp cloth.

14. Return all dishes, etc., to the kitchen.

The time required for each phase of the procedure in serving and eating the luncheon was carefully recorded.

HANDICAPS

The experiment was not conducted under ideal conditions. The only conference room in the high-school building that was available for the experiment is located on the floor above the kitchen. The student waiters, therefore, were required to transport the food (three courses and, therefore, three trays, every day except Tuesday) a distance of fifty-four yards, including twenty-one steps. The waiters had to open and close two doors. Furthermore, while the cafeteria and kitchen workers were most co-operative, they were also engaged in serving the student body. As a result, the pupil-waiters frequently lost several minutes before the trays were ready to be carried upstairs. In a more careful experiment, a kitchen worker might have been assigned to no other task except that of preparing the trays for the experiment.

RESULTS OF THE EXPERIMENT

The results of the experiment are shown in Table 1. In studying the results, the reader should bear in mind the handicaps under which the experiment was conducted. A detailed restatement of the contents of Table 1

minutes is indicated for a three-course luncheon, eaten in a leisurely fashion.

EVALUATION BY THE STUDENTS

At the last luncheon, which took place on Friday, the pupils were given an "opinionnaire" blank to fill out.

TABLE 1
MINUTES REQUIRED FOR SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES IN SERVING
AND EATING A NUTRITIOUS LUNCHEON

ACTIVITY PERFORMED	DAY SERVED					
	Mon-day	Tues-day	Wednes-day	Thurs-day	Fri-day	Average
Time required to set table.....	6	6	5	8	5	6.00
Time required to go to kitchen and bring in the soup.....	4	4	3	5	4.00
Time required to serve and eat soup.....	6	6	6	7	6.25
Time required to remove soup dishes and bring in main course.....	5	4	6	4	4.75
Time required to serve main course.....	4	3	4	7	6	4.80
Time required to eat main course.....	20	16	15	15	16	16.40
Time required to clear main course and bring dessert.....	3	3	5	5	3	3.80
Time required to serve and eat dessert.....	5	6	4	5	4	4.80
Time required to clear and clean table and return all dishes.....	6	4	7	2	4	4.60
Total.....	59	38	54	57	54	52.40
Setting table and clearing table.....	12	10	12	10	9	10.60
Time required for guests to be served and to eat properly.....	47	28	42	47	45	41.80
Estimated actual eating time:						
Soup.....	6	6	6	7	6.25
Luncheon plate.....	20	16	15	15	16	16.40
Dessert.....	5	6	4	5	4	4.80
Total.....	31	22	25	26	27	26.20

is unnecessary. The most pertinent facts indicated are that 6.25 minutes were required, on the average, to eat the soup course. It required 16.4 minutes, on the average, to eat the main course. An average of 4.8 minutes was required to serve and eat dessert. An average actual eating time of 26.20

Only seven replies are indicated in Table 2 because one pupil was absent on Thursday and Friday, and her place was taken by two other pupils. The opinions of the temporary luncheon guests and the opinion of the absentee were not sought. It is apparent from Table 2 that the pupils' judg-

ment was entirely favorable to the experiment and that they believed all pupils should eat in the manner indicated in the experiment.

CONCLUSIONS

As a result of the experiment, it was found that the group of eight high-school pupils who were served ate a nutritious luncheon of three courses in not more than forty-seven minutes. The pupils ate soup, luncheon, and dessert in not more than thirty-one minutes. It took them not more than twenty minutes to eat the main course, and the main course, plus the dessert, was eaten in not more than twenty-five minutes. Moreover, the seven pupils whose opinions were sought were favorable toward the experiment and believed that all high-school pupils should eat their lunches in the manner used in the experiment.

IMPLICATIONS

Could this type of program be carried on for all pupils in high school? The answer depends on the space and facilities which are available and on the attitudes of the pupils, parents, and teachers. Enough space is required for each group of eight students to have eighty-four square feet (12×7). It is true that larger tables, seating ten or twelve pupils, might be used, but tables for eight are probably better because the task of carrying trays with more than eight plates on them might be too much for the young girl waitresses. Platters and large vegetable dishes, in addition to the

dishes which are usually found in a high-school cafeteria, are also required. The cafeteria manager who assisted in this experiment believes that, if the entire luncheon period were organized on the table-service basis, the kitchen and cafeteria workers could serve the large dishes to the pupil-waiters even more readily than individual pupils are served in line.

TABLE 2
PUPILS' EVALUATION OF THE
LUNCHEON EXPERIMENT

QUESTION	REPLY	
	Yes	No
Did you enjoy eating your lunch this way?	7
Did you mind being a host?	5
Did you mind being a waiter?	1	4
Did you mind eating with boys (or girls)?	1	6
Do you think high-school students should eat this way every day?	7

The institution of a program of this kind would require the good will of the student body. Assignments of hosts and waiters, as well as the grouping of pupils at the tables, would need to be planned, and this planning should be done largely by the pupils. It is assumed that it would be desirable to have the pupils rotate among the tables during the semester. All pupils would have the same luncheon menu each day. It would be possible, of course, to have a separate, individual cafeteria line along with the table-service plan, but this arrangement would obviously present additional difficulties.

Parent support would be absolutely necessary, especially since the program would be financed through taxation, by individual charges, or by parent-teacher associations. However, the cost would amount to little, if any, more than parents are now paying for their children's luncheons. The type of luncheon served in this experiment is sold regularly to the pupils for twenty-five cents or, with soup, for thirty cents. An additional nine-cent subsidy is paid to the cafeteria by the United States government.

The teachers' good will and active interest would also be required; for they would need to help the pupils in planning. In addition, regular teacher supervision would be necessary. If the luncheon period were longer than is required for eating purposes alone, the pupils would require the teachers' help in making plans for community

singing, announcements, and so on. Of course, the teachers would be remiss if they failed to take advantage of the opportunity to teach nutrition and good table manners. Perhaps it would not be too much to hope that the teachers might enjoy sitting down to a well-ordered luncheon along with their pupils.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Where facilities are adequate, and with the support of pupils, parents, and teachers, and in the light of the values which may accrue, it is recommended that high schools conduct luncheon periods along the lines indicated in this experiment. Where facilities are not adequate to carry on a table-service plan, every attempt should be made to provide at least twenty minutes' eating time for each pupil.

RELIGIOUS EDUCATION AT THE RIVERDALE COUNTRY SCHOOL FOR GIRLS

MIRIAM DENNESS COOPER

Riverdale Country School for Girls, New York City



AN INDEPENDENT secondary school has an unequaled opportunity for carrying out a program of religious education. Hence it ought to make certain that its concept of this kind of education is both noble and practically sound. Religious education is best conceived of as an atmosphere which is "caught not taught" and which permeates every aspect of the school's life. Its primary objective is the development of young people of fine character, who are aware of the needs of others, desirous of serving others, and ready and eager to assume the duties of good citizenship—young people who are spiritually sensitive, who stand in awe and worship before the beauty and mystery of the universe, and who grow as Jesus "grew in wisdom and in stature and in favor with God and man."

SPIRITUAL TRAINING

Spiritual training of the emotions as well as of the intellect.—Religious education must involve intellectual understanding. Thinking should result in the development of spiritual concepts, but it must be accompanied by feeling, which should culminate in spiritual

attitudes. The problem is one of emphasis, and the latter emphasis is held to be of major importance.*

Indirect methods of stimulating spiritual thinking through subject matter.—How can we best stimulate spiritual thinking and feeling in the lives of adolescents? At Riverdale¹ we believe that, although subject matter, a vital part of our heritage, must not become the center of religious training, we must not overlook the fact that in subject matter are to be found wide implications for both religious knowledge and experience. Our first stress is to make teachers aware of these possibilities in their daily class work. For example, in history there are the significance and influence of the religious and ethical concepts of peoples on their culture, their rise to greatness, their fall into obscurity; in literature, the impassioned imaginings of poets, the fervor for human betterment, the pity and terror, the humility of the great novelists or dramatists before the mystery of human personality and

* A nonsectarian country day school enrolling about 120 girls, which comprises Grades VII through XII. Its pupils, almost without exception, go on to college.

suffering (Euripides centuries ago beheld the same agony in the women of Troy that Hersey saw in the mothers of Hiroshima); in mathematics and science, the dedicated striving for truth and order; in language, the amazement that comes when a pupil realizes that men speak not so many languages but so few and that words can unite men or burn them at the stake because of the connotations of a preposition; in art and music, the exaltation of the spirit caused by Botticelli's "Adoration of the Magi," or Beethoven's *Ninth Symphony*; the realization on the part of the girl who shapes a lump of clay into a bowl that she is performing an act of creation. Every one of these concepts is religious and may become so for the student if the teacher recognizes their implications.

Direct approach through knowledge of the Bible.—In addition to emphasizing the spiritual implications of subject matter, it is well, we at Riverdale believe, to present some direct teaching of the Bible as a kind of framework to which, all through life, religious ideas and experience can be related and without which one cannot understand our culture as it is expressed in the arts, in literature, and in social structure. Hence in Grade IX, after which comparatively few new girls enter the school, the stress in English and history is on simple, yet basic, information about the Bible as literature, on the ancient world in which it evolved, and on the similarity and dissimilarity of that world to our

own. In this grade, too, through the study of early peoples, the pupil is introduced to the idea that all men in their religions have striven to understand and to express the mystery of life; the nature of God; the origin of the universe and of man; man's relation to the Creative Power; his significance in this world; and his destiny after death. Here occurs a natural correlation with the study of science, especially with the theory of evolution, which is brought out in order that the pupil will not be upset by a belief that science and religion are incompatible. Since the school comprises children of different faiths, although the majority are of Christian background, it is hoped that each pupil will now begin to examine her own faith and to give sympathetic understanding to the faiths of others.

ETHICAL CONDUCT INFUSED THROUGH SCHOOL LIFE

Religious teaching ought to be regarded as less than nothing if it does not result in right action, both on the part of the children and on the part of the school as an institution. A school ought constantly to examine not only the ethical conduct of its pupils but also the ethics of its own practices. Are the actions of both conducive to spiritual growth, or are they positively defeating this growth?

Fostered through administrative practice.—Marking, discipline, guidance—all the practices of the school can build or negate spiritual values. The

evolution of the system of reporting to parents now used at Riverdale is an example. The faculty, the pupils, and many of the parents had long been discontented with our past system, which emphasized the achievement of marks rather than growth toward the ultimate objectives of the school. Hence committees of the staff worked with pupils and parents to devise a system of reports which would stress the development of character rather more than the acquisition of knowledge. This report is often discussed by the home-room teacher or headmistress with the pupil herself or with her parents. Since every subject-matter teacher, as well as the home-room teacher, is responsible for making a report about each of her pupils twice a year, she must constantly be on the alert for specific evidence of character growth as observed in behavior. She may not depend upon hearsay. If she has no evidence, she is free not to report. Space is left on the blanks for further explanation or comment on other aspects of character, not all of which can be covered by any objective analysis no matter how comprehensive it may attempt to be. The pupils, of course, usually do not regard the progress indicated by the reports to parents as religious. The fact that it is not so labeled is desirable; for verbalization, particularly in the case of adolescents, may hinder rather than foster religious growth.

Though adolescents are idealists, quick to appreciate spiritual experience, verbalization must not be forced

on them until they are ready for it. If one of the basic needs of adolescents is the formulation of a satisfactory philosophy of life, they will, in time, be glad to express in conscious terms of language that experience which has been real, for which they have been striving, though usually without knowing it.

Fostered through directed reading.—Just as opportunity for the formulation of religious concepts can be found in regular class work, so also can the foundations for ethical concepts be laid. In the Senior year of English, especially, novels and plays are chosen with a view to the possibility of discussing contemporary and timeless moral issues and spiritual values. Examples of this type of novels and plays are: *Of Human Bondage*, *Anna Karenina*, *The Scarlet Letter*, *A Bell for Adano*, *All Quiet on the Western Front*, *A Man of Property*, *The Bridge of San Luis Rey*, *The Trojan Women*, *Oedipus the King*, *Ghosts*, *A Doll's House*, *Winterset*, *Liliom*, *Outward Bound*, and *All God's Chillun Got Wings*.

Fostered through group guidance.—Moreover, the Senior orientation class, ostensibly taught for the purpose of giving help in choosing a college and a vocation and for acquiring basic psychological knowledge, provides excellent opportunities to discuss adolescents' mores and problems, such as drinking; codes of conduct; relations with family, friends, and the opposite sex; and the obligations of women to society. These group discussions are accompanied also, when desirable, by

conferences on more intimate personal problems.

The dangers of mere talking—verbalization—however, are not forgotten. Brubacher and his collaborators point out:

The discussing, then, is best done when it helps to disclose actual lines of action and gets over into behavior as soon as possible. It should also be clearly recognized that moral action is the only effective test of moral outlook.²

Fostered through student activities.—Religious principles should not only permeate administrative practice and class instruction but should also result in ethical conduct in student activities. In athletics, emphasis is placed on good sportsmanship, loyalty, and co-operation rather than on competition. The sinking of personal ambition for the good of the team, self-control and discipline as the basis for physical and mental health—all play their parts. The student council does much to foster high ethical standards, not by punitive measures in cases of misconduct, but by trying to uncover and eradicate the causes, whenever possible, and by striving to induce the offender to adopt more worthy ideals.

SERVICE ACTIVITIES AS AN EXPRESSION OF THE RELIGIOUS SPIRIT

Knowledge about religion and a personal ethical conduct are not enough. Still more is necessary for the truly spiritual life. One leader states:

² John S. Brubacher and Others, *The Public Schools and Spiritual Values*, p. 147. Seventh Yearbook of the John Dewey Society. New York: Harper & Bros., 1944.

Religion has its best expression in human service, and a real religious faith must have fulfilment in service, if it is to have meaning and purpose. Belief and conviction must be fortified by action, which takes the form of participation in social activities suited to the individual's age and stage of development. Without the proper activities for the application of Christian teachings there cannot be well-rounded growth, nor much conviction of its value to carry over into later life.³

The student council is the agency through which the program of service functions. In the school itself pupils find many avenues for rendering voluntary service in the library, the office, the study halls, or the home room. During the war, most of the janitorial work of the school—cleaning the classrooms, halls, gymnasium, and dining rooms—was done by pupils. At present the necessity for these tasks is reduced, and expenditure of time and energy can be devoted more largely to service to others outside the immediate school. A beginning has been made in co-operative work with agencies in the Riverdale and New York City communities—churches, hospitals, and the local Neighborhood House. Thanksgiving baskets are assembled, scrapbooks are made, and toys are collected. Perhaps one of the most interesting projects is the one now being carried out at Neighborhood House, where several pupils, under the guidance of our staff, are holding classes in French for older public-school children. Another group

³ Henry Gallard, Information Service Bulletin No. 14. New York: National Preparatory School Committee (347 Madison Avenue), 1947.

of girls, who had taken a course in story-telling given at the library, a part of Neighborhood House, conducts a story hour for younger children. At Christmas time an extensive fund is raised for the hundred neediest cases. The school's policy with regard to raising money by pupils for worthy causes is that the effort shall be made by the pupils themselves through contributions from their own allowances or from proceeds from fairs, sales, or performances. The easy method of turning to parents for funds is discouraged. However, in two projects, the Christmas Fund and the annual Red Cross concert, which is prepared and performed by all divisions of the school, it is usual for the children to ask the help and interest of parents. Whenever possible, the need is pointed up in class work and in programs prepared by the pupils and the faculty. Intelligent, generous sharing is encouraged, and the Lady Bountiful attitude is minimized. In past years a pledge system of giving was used as a means of anticipating and meeting the many requests for financial help which come to the school. At its inception, this system was enthusiastically undertaken. Recently, however, it has begun to be perfunctory. Hence this year's student council has made a study of the practice and has decided that, while the community-chest idea may be efficient for adults, it tends to become impersonal for young people and to confine judgment as to the worth of causes to the few who prepare the budget. It was

also decided that warm-hearted sharing, as the needs of others are seen and felt, is a continuous responsibility, not one which can be met by a wholesale pledge at the beginning of the year, paid and then forgotten until the next instalment is due.

Fostering religious ideals through internationalism.—To combat perfunctory giving is not enough. Truly religious thinking involves the concept of the brotherhood of man. One world is no new idea to the Christian. To bring this world to reality is the obligation not only of the spiritual leader and of the enlightened statesman but also of the educator. Fostering of international-mindedness ought to be one of the primary objectives of all schools, both public and private. Here the independent school can do much to blaze the way. The international point of view should be sought in all aspects of school life. In foreign-language and in social-studies classes, pupils can be brought to a sympathetic understanding of other peoples. Literature, the arts, and music can point out the universality of human emotions and aesthetic expression. Science and mathematics can indicate the contributions of men of many nations and tongues to these common denominators of the world in which we live.

Practical application through personal contacts.—The subject-matter approach, however, represents intellectual emphasis. Some way of arousing emotional commitment to international good will needs to be sought.

During the war years, the presence in school of pupils who had come from other countries, who had themselves been victims of a totalitarian regime or whose families had suffered because of totalitarianism, provided strong personal ties with other nations. Enduring friendships were formed with girls from Norway, Austria, Germany, Czechoslovakia, Belgium, Italy, Switzerland, England, and China. It should be pointed out, however, that the mere presence of foreign-born pupils or of pupils whose parents had their origin in another country does not insure international or intercultural understanding. It may serve, instead, to accentuate differences and to create antagonisms. Another aspect of the Lady Bountiful attitude—the idea that Americans have everything to give and nothing to gain from alien cultures—can be as pernicious as gifts of money or other benefactions often are. Much careful thought needs to be devoted to the creation of positive approaches to the problem. American children need to realize the potential contributions which foreign pupils may bring, and, in turn, foreign pupils need to value their own traditions, to develop pride in their origins, and to recognize that the best American culture will be a synthesis of many cultures.

Application of the Golden Rule.—No longer are these numerous pupils from foreign lands enrolled at Riverdale. Most of them have returned to their native countries or have graduated from the school. However, there still

remains with us a strong, moving appeal to international-mindedness—our close relations with an adopted school in Toulon, France. In 1946-47 our pupils collected for this school forty-three packages of clothing, food, books, and many personal Christmas gifts. Money that was raised and weekly donations from allowances have gone to buy vitamins and other medical supplies. Photographs and letters have been exchanged by individual pupils. Charming booklets, written and illustrated by the children of Toulon, have made vivid the lives of French children and have done much to arouse in our girls a kind of humility which has prevented the giving from being one-sided. Instead, the artistic quality of the delightful "thank you's," the way in which the French children have utilized the material sent, the cheerfulness and fortitude in the face of deprivations have resulted in so much admiration on the part of our pupils that they are tending to copy or, at least to adapt, the same kind of booklet as a return gift to its originators. Here is the Golden Rule translated into action. There is no question that this cause has won the wholehearted support of our entire student body. Enthusiasm has sprung largely from the devotion of one teacher, head of the French department, who is of Swiss nationality. During the preparation of the Christmas boxes, formal classroom teaching was abandoned. Actually, however, the learning of French was stimulated, because the pupils and teacher, while

sorting and packing, were chattering in French. The example of this teacher well illustrates the principle that the religious spirit must be "caught not taught."

The surest way then to build the needed spiritual strength into the character and behavior of the rising generation is for the surrounding adult generation to live that strength so consistently in all their dealings with the young that these will see its value and grow up accepting it.⁴

REGULAR WORSHIP

The core of religious education.—No program of religious training can be complete if it neglects the element of worship. It is in our chapel service that this training is given. Here, too, the significance of many other aspects of religious experience—knowledge, ethics, service, and international good will—are pointed up and given their "labels" in ways which we hope do not seem sentimental or objectionable to the adolescent. Chapel takes a number of forms. Sometimes it is led entirely by pupils. When the pupils conduct it, dignity and orderliness are sought. Music, carefully selected hymns and responses, and the occasional playing of records accompany the service. A small choir of younger girls sings responses and other religious selections.

As related to specific subject matter.—Frequent attempts are made to relate worship to knowledge. The Bible is, of course, the chief source of material

and is presented with a literary, aesthetic, or an inspirational approach. Sometimes biblical themes are compared with spiritual expressions from other religious or poetic sources. Bible readings are frequently tied in with class studies of a seemingly secular nature. For example, when a class was studying ancient Egypt, thought was centered on Ikhnaton's hymn to Ra and the similar Hebrew Psalm 104, in turn, followed by a series of chapel talks related to modern scientific ideas of the sun as the source of all energy, which was studied at the time in general science. The symbolism—God as the creator and source of all life—is obvious. Another class was studying the short story. The head-mistress, therefore, read a series of biblical short stories, such as Belshazzar's feast, several parables, and other tales which exemplified this ancient type of literature.

Comparative religion has not been ignored. Students led one fascinating chapel service at which they summarized in a simple dramatic liturgy various ways in which primitive peoples expressed their ideas of the creation. This culminated in the superb first chapter of Genesis—"in the beginning God created the heaven and the earth."

As related to the study of religious feasts and holidays.—Again in an attempt to arouse sympathy for the Hebrew holidays, of which Christian students living in New York City are conscious but which they seldom understand, and in order to foster pride

⁴ John S. Brubacher and Others, *op. cit.*, p. 113.

in their own traditions on the part of our Jewish students, we once held at the Jewish New Year and on Yom Kippur a series of services on the significance of these seasons and on the contributions of the Hebrews to our civilization.

The Christian year affords a wealth of opportunity for religious themes. For Christmas, Lent, Holy Week, and Easter, the stories which epitomize the related events in the life of Christ are read. Saints, prophets, and martyrs are remembered as their days arrive. We tell the lovely story of St. Francis, sing his Canticle of the Sun. A spiritual note is added to what are usually mundane saints' days when the pupils learn that a St. Patrick and a St. Valentine really lived and discover that All Saints' Day follows Halloween and understand the "why" of that beloved children's festival. The heroes of our country are not forgotten either. Pupils lead services which emphasize the spiritual significance of the lives of Lincoln, Washington, and Columbus and interpret the meaning of Armistice and Memorial days.

As related to ethics applied in daily school life.—Frequently, too, chapel services center in ethical problems pertinent to school life, such as cheating, excessive competition, cliques, personal codes, and problems of girls and women, together with their religious implications. Recent chapel talks on the great virtues, which for many girls are mere words, were illustrated by examples chosen from school life and contrasted with examples of

their opposites found all too often in student practice.

The service program of the school receives its impetus from, and often has its culmination in, the chapel. Here the student council is inducted in a short symbolic service in which the new members dedicate themselves to the welfare of the school. Red Cross and clothing drives, baskets at Thanksgiving, student-council projects are all launched here. At Christmas time gifts of scrapbooks and toys are presented, not only to their eventual recipients, the day nurseries and hospitals, but also to the Christ Child before whose manger they are laid.

DRAMA AS A SPIRITUAL EXPERIENCE

One final aspect of our religious life should be mentioned. Although religious experience through drama is not frequent, it can be, when it occurs, significant and intense. The school gives numerous dramatic productions, both informal and elaborate, but the Christmas performance is unique. Everyone in the school—faculty and pupils alike—has some part in its preparation, either as a member of the technical staff, the accompanying chorus, the play itself, or of some committee. Parents, alumnae, and many friends of the school and the community attend the gathering. The play is not a performance; it is conceived, rather, as a service of worship. The beholders are not an audience; they are a congregation that takes

part in the carol-singing which accompanies the play. There is no applause, and personal glorification of the players is minimized. Everyone attempts to become absorbed by this creation of a perfect offering. Before the curtain opens, the cast assembles on the stage, where a short prayer is offered. Slowly the curtains open, and, somehow, the Christ Child is there! This religious experience is felt supremely by the players and significantly by the persons who have worked together to create it and by those who watch. The devotion of energy, almost to the limit of endurance, and the sinking of the self through sharing with each other and with the audience in such a creative act often become sacramental in nature, transcend everyday reality, and constitute a spiritual fulfilment.

RELIGION TAUGHT BY THE COMMON TASK

This article, then, describes our program of religious education at Riverdale. What we are doing is not unique,

but it is not important for religion to be taught in a unique manner. What is important is that we are doing it. It is important that we keep steadily on and that we know what we are doing, in the hope that our youth will come to know the nature of the experience they are having. Jesus himself did not so much teach something which had not been taught before; nor did he teach it in a new way. He simply used the familiar techniques of his day—the parable, the homely precept, above all, the noble example. Through them, he helped men to teach themselves the true nature of religion, the goodness and mercy of God, the beauty and wonder of the universe, the satisfaction of the personally noble life dedicated to the service of others, and the willingness to undergo hardship and suffering with fortitude and cheerfulness for the sake of these ideals. If we, as a school, and our children, as a part of us, instil these ideals increasingly well, we are following in his footsteps.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

I. CURRICULUM, METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION, AND MEASUREMENT

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THE following list of selected and annotated references is the first in the sixteenth cycle of twenty lists comprehending almost the whole area of education, which is being published co-operatively by the *School Review* and the *Elementary School Journal*. The sequence within the cycle is the same as that of previous years.

The term "instruction," as in all previous lists, includes curriculum, methods of teaching and study, supervision, and measurement (or evaluation). The vertical scope of secondary education, as represented in the items of the list, extends through junior high school, senior high school, and junior college.

It is not the purpose of this list of references to furnish a complete bibliography of writings in the fields designated. Accordingly, in areas with especially large numbers of items in the published literature, some good items have been omitted, and the items which have been retained are

representative rather than comprehensive.

CURRICULUM¹

1. ARMSTRONG, CHARLES M. "Increased College Attendance and the High School," *Clearing House*, XXI (November, 1946), 139-42.

Discusses the changes which greatly increased college enrolments will bring to the high school, particularly in the matter of providing terminal education.

2. BLANK, EARL W. "The Curriculum and the Dramatic Method," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (February, 1947), 126-35.

Advocates the increased use of creative dramatics, both for motivation and for presentation of learning material in diverse classroom subjects, such as physics and history.

¹ See also Item 532 (Martorana), Item 541 (Gruhn), Item 560 (Ward), Item 563 (Kandel), Item 576 (Landy), Item 581 (Taylor), and Item 582 (Traubert) in the list of selected references appearing in the October, 1947, number of the *School Review*; Item 358 (Caswell) and Item 361 (Jersild, Chayer, Fehlman, Hildreth, and Young) in the September, 1947, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

3. BUCK, PAUL H. "The Role of General Education in School and College," *Educational Record*, XXVIII (Supplement No. 16, January, 1947), 112-25.
Surveys the growth of the concept of general education. Places particular emphasis on the Harvard Committee's report, *General Education in a Free Society*.
4. BUTTERWECK, JOSEPH. "The Core-Curriculum for Secondary Schools," *Clearing House*, XXI (December, 1946), 195-200.
From the viewpoint of an educational experimentalist, discusses the meaning of the core curriculum, its underlying principles, and its possibilities for the secondary school.
5. CHRISTIAN, JOHNIE. "Curriculum Planning on a Community Basis," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXXIII (January, 1947), 43-48.
Tells how a teachers' summer workshop helped a small Texas community to plan a curriculum centered in the "homemaking interest," with the result that the community became aware of its own potentialities for education.
6. COMMITTEE NO. 2, C. LESLIE CUSHMAN (chairman). "General Education and College Preparation," *Teachers College Record*, XLVIII (January, 1947), 225-38.
Presents a report of a committee of the Conference on the Education of Youth in America held at Teachers College, Columbia University. Outlines a pattern of relationships for high schools and colleges and concludes with a statement of purposes for general education.
7. *Curriculum Enrichment Materials for High Schools*. Texas State Department of Education Bulletin No. 466. Austin, Texas: State Department of Education, 1946. Pp. 122.
Presents a selection of Latin-American materials designed for use by high-school teachers of English, Spanish, social studies, fine arts, and physical education in promo-
- tion of the program sponsored by the United States Office of Inter-American Affairs.
8. "Curriculum Trends," *Baltimore Bulletin of Education*, XXIV (March, 1947), 90-92; (April, 1947), 114-16.
Presents a series of descriptive accounts of results of continuing curriculum study in various high-school subjects. Emphasis is placed on the newer conceptions of the aims of secondary education.
9. DOUGLASS, HARL R. (editor). *The High School Curriculum*. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1947. Pp. viii+662.
Includes contributions of twenty-seven recognized leaders in secondary education. Emphasizes general concepts, current practices, and trends in curriculum construction at the high-school level.
10. ENGLE, T. L. "Psychology," *Clearing House*, XXI (April, 1947), 469-73.
"Presents the opinions of pupils in six high schools on the value to them, in terms of seven educational objectives, of the psychology courses which they took." Pupils also give their opinions of the comparative values of six other subject fields.
11. GILCHRIST, ROBERT S. "Education for Youth in These Times," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, XXXI (April, 1947), 162-72.
Considers the role of the principal and the faculty in developing the new curriculum. Suggests bases for the curriculum and foresees certain changes that may result from a program of development.
12. GWYNN, J. MINOR. "Curriculum Experimentation," *High School Journal*, XXIX (November-December, 1946), 235-40.
Presents brief descriptive accounts of several prominent experiments in curriculum reconstruction at both elementary- and secondary-school levels.
13. HARBESON, JOHN W. "Curriculum for Human Need," *Educational Leadership*, IV (December, 1946), 193-98.
Defines a "concept of the function of the junior college in education, and discusses

- some of the curriculum requirements of such a college which can promote the fulfilment of many of the basic human needs of youth."
14. "Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary-School Age," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (March, 1947), 3-144.
Is described as "a report of a national survey of curriculum provisions and needs by the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals. From curriculum practices reported by schools, the committee has designed a summary of the best characteristics of selected school programs.",
15. LEONARD, J. PAUL. "Meeting the Imperative Needs of Youth," *School and Community*, XXXIII (January, 1947), 35-36, 38.
Contrasts three proposals for solving the need for common understanding and advocates an approach based on a study of the demands of modern society on youth.
16. MACKENZIE, GORDON N. "Frontiers of Educational Research in Secondary School Curriculum Building," *Journal of Educational Research*, XL (January, 1947), 356-64.
Proposes a method of dealing with two present inadequacies in curriculum research: (1) the lack of a theory of the nature of the curriculum and (2) the practice of research out of context.
17. MACLEAN, MALCOLM S. "General Education in Public Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XXII (February, 1947), 81-88.
Presents a forceful discussion of the issues involved in current theories about general education and of the role of the lower schools in realizing the accepted aim of meeting the common needs of all American youth.
18. MORGAN, ROY E., and HIBBARD, WALTER R., JR. "Building a Curriculum To Meet Industrial Needs," *Junior College Journal*, XVII (November, 1946), 92-100.
Presents a detailed report on how the New Haven YMCA Junior College made a job analysis and developed a curriculum in "plating engineering" to meet the needs of the local industrial community.
19. OFFICE OF THE SECONDARY CURRICULUM CO-ORDINATOR. *Procedure for Curriculum Development and the Adoption of Instructional Materials in the Secondary Schools*. Secondary Curriculum Publication No. 7. Pasadena, California: Pasadena City Schools, 1947. Pp. 56.
A suggestive guide to curriculum policy and procedures, as developed by the experienced staff of a city school system.
20. REYNOLDS, JAMES W. "Certain Junior-College Curriculum Problems," *Junior College Journal*, XVII (December, 1946), 134-38.
Presents a report for the Committee on Curriculum and Adult Education of the American Association of Junior Colleges. Summarizes the results of a questionnaire covering (1) the proportion of general and vocational education, (2) the length of terminal curriculums, (3) the nature of new terminal curriculums which may be added to junior-college offerings, and (4) provisions for adult education.
21. RICE, T. D. "Balance in High School Living," *Educational Leadership*, IV (December, 1946), 163-68.
Points out some of the deterrents to the attainment of balanced living by youth in the secondary schools. Describes programs carried through in schools which have recognized the problem.
22. *Science Education in American Schools*. Forty-sixth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I. Chicago: National Society for the Study of Education, 1947. Pp. xii+306.
Presents a discussion of the foremost issues in science-teaching. Recognition is given to the advancement in recent years in both scientific knowledge and teaching procedures at the elementary- and secondary-school levels.

23. SEAY, MAURICE T. "Kentucky Resources: What the Secondary Schools Should Teach about Use of the Resources," *Kentucky School Journal*, XXV (December, 1946), 28-30.
Suggests both administrative and curriculum changes in order to give high-school students a better understanding of the natural and human resources of the community.
24. SMITH, VICTOR C. "Psychology for High School Students," *Secondary Education*, XIII (November, 1946—January, 1947), 1-4.
Relates "most of our personal and social problems" to psychology and advocates that psychology be taught as a fourth-year course in science in the high school.
25. SNYDER, ELMER W. "Guidance, an Integral Part of the Curriculum," *National Association of Deans of Women Journal*, X (January, 1947), 65-69.
Reports the high lights of the Rochester (New York) high-school curriculum study. The concept of guidance presented here includes three phases—personal, educational, and vocational.
26. STRATEMEYER, FLORENCE B., FORKNER, HAMDEN L., and MCKIM, MARGARET G., *Developing a Curriculum for Modern Living*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1947. Pp. xvi+58.
Presents a reasoned theory of curriculum based on a knowledge of children as they grow and mature in American society with its democratic orientation. There is an extensive analysis of the life-situations faced by learners, which is utilized as a central theme of the curriculum.
27. STUDEBAKER, JOHN W. "Secondary Education for a New World," *School Life*, XXIX (October, 1946), 3-8.
Considers the broad areas in which improvement in secondary education is needed and suggests three goals to be accomplished within the next decade as a contribution to the building of a better world.
28. SWANSON, J. CHESTER. "Building the Curriculum To Meet the Imperative Needs of Youth," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (April, 1947), 152-62.
"An example of how one large city [Allentown, Pennsylvania] high school endeavored to change its curriculum better to meet the needs of its youth." Gives facts and figures on drop-out rates, enrolments, and curriculum changes.
29. TEAD, ORDWAY. "The Role of General Education in the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XVII (March, 1947), 267-77.
Proposes five underlying generalizations for the junior college. Stresses the "increasingly indispensable role" of general education at this level and the responsibility of educators for seeing that, when a student leaves the junior college, he "is qualified to carry on that effort . . . which will assure his adequate adjustment to life in a free society."
30. UMSTATTD, J. G. "Curriculum Reform in U.S.A.," *Times Educational Supplement* (London), No. 1657 (February 1, 1947), p. 60; No. 1658 (February 8, 1947), p. 76.
Presents an evaluation of the results of prominent curriculum experiments in American high schools since the report of the Committee of Ten. Notes the obstacles to progress, such as inadequate teacher training and financial support.
31. "What Studies for the Atomic Age?" *Nation's Schools*, XXXIX (April, 1947), 44.
Presents the results of an opinion poll of school administrators on questions relating to desirable emphasis in high schools on science, social studies, Latin, modern languages, and citizenship training.

METHODS OF TEACHING AND STUDY AND SUPERVISION²

32. ARMSTRONG, LOUIS E. "Strategy in Supervision," *Educational Leadership*, IV (January, 1947), 245-48.

² See also Item 380 (Alexander) and Item 382 (Barr, Burton, and Brueckner) in the list of selected references appearing in the September, 1947, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

- Deals with the supervisory program of the state of Florida and outlines the objectives of this type of educational leadership.
33. BLANCHARD, B. EVERARD. "Supervision in the Rural Secondary School," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXX (December, 1946), 43-46.
- Discusses policies for supervision in rural secondary schools with particular emphasis on an experimental plan adopted by the state of Florida.
34. BUTLER, FRANK A. *The Improvement of Teaching in Secondary Schools*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1946 (revised). Pp. xii+400.
- This book is a revision of the original edition of 1939 with more emphasis on the unit, its planning and teaching. Expounds eight principles of teaching. Exercises and bibliography are provided to make this volume useful as a textbook.
35. DOLL, RONALD C. "High-School Pupils' Attitudes toward Teaching Procedures," *School Review*, LV (April, 1947), 222-27.
- Reports an investigation of 1,237 pupils to determine which of certain procedures, ranging from laissez faire through democratic to autocratic methods, prove most acceptable to learners at the secondary-school level.
36. DUNN, WILLIAM HUDSON. "Special Provisions To Meet Individual Differences on the Secondary Level," *College of Education Record* (University of Washington), XIII (November, 1946), 2-7.
- Reports an experiment in which students of superior ability, as well as those of low ability, are given appropriate opportunities for improvement of learning procedures.
37. GANN, EDITH. "Self Development through Good Guidance," *Educational Leadership*, IV (January, 1947), 249-53.
- Deals particularly with supervision in the social studies and emphasizes that sensitivity to and awareness of the teachers' problems stimulate professional growth in the supervisor.
38. LANGE, PHIL, and DEBERNARDIS, AMO. "Successful Leadership Must Be Constructive," *Educational Leadership*, IV (January, 1947), 234-38.
- Describes the supervisory program at a naval training station and suggests that the factors making for success can be applied to civilian schools.
39. LELAND, EDWIN A. "The Shock Method of Teaching," *High School Journal*, XXIX (November-December, 1946), 252-55.
- Proposes that the study of subject matter begin with the examination of "the hottest, most controversial issues in the field" so as to "emotionalize" the curriculum and bring about behavior changes.
40. PIERCE, PAUL R. "The Classroom Clinic Replaces the Teaching Demonstration," *School Review*, LV (March, 1947), 150-53.
- Describes an experiment in which different teachers take turns in directing class exercises for observation by other teachers.
41. ROGERS, EVELYN GIBBS. "Progressive Ideals in Practice: The Teacher's Dilemma," *Educational Research Bulletin*, XXV (October 16, 1946), 178-82.
- Recounts difficulties encountered in applying progressive ideals learned in schools of education when the teacher is confronted with a traditional framework for teaching. Suggests two remedies.
42. "Supervision—an Adventure in Human Relationship," *Educational Leadership*, IV (January, 1947), 214-53.
- An entire issue devoted to brief articles on various aspects of supervision.
43. THOMAS, EVAN H. "Rate Yourself as a Supervisor!" *School Executive*, LXVI (April, 1947), 32.
- Presents eighteen questions that the supervisor may ask himself as a stimulus to improvement of supervisory procedures.
44. WOOTON, FLAUD C. "Needed Reform in California Secondary Education," *Calif-*

fornia Journal of Secondary Education, XXII (February, 1947), 73-80.

Presents critical observations relating to the effects of college-entrance requirements and other restrictive influences on the adaptability of secondary-school programs to individual student needs.

MEASUREMENT³

45. DIEDERICH, PAUL B. "Teaching English with Exercises," *School Review*, LV (February, 1947), 80-86.

Describes the teaching and testing procedures employed in the remedial English

³ See also Item 638 (Belanger) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1947, number of the *School Review* and Item 694 (Diederich) in the December, 1947, number of the same journal.

course for Freshman students at the University of Chicago.

46. MYERS, WILLIAM M. "The Evaluation of Educational Outcomes," *School Review*, LV (February, 1947), 99-102.

Suggests comparative studies of significant aspects of community life as a means of evaluating the extent to which modern methods achieve the social objectives of education.

47. WHITE, VERA. "Measuring Competence in English of Armed Services Personnel," *School Review*, LV (June, 1947), 345-55.

Describes procedures employed in constructing and validating the examination used by the Armed Forces Institute to measure competence in English at the high-school level.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS



REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

MAUD A. MERRILL, *Problems of Child Delinquency*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1947. Pp. xiv+404. \$3.50.

Scientific research in the field of child behavior popularly described as "delinquent" currently shows two dominant and promising trends: (1) the attempt to discover the ways in which delinquent children differ significantly from like children who do not come into contact with the courts; (2) the pursuit of the dynamics of individual behavior in the personal-social interaction that reveals why a particular child with a particular background tends to behave as he does. Merrill's book, *Problems of Child Delinquency*, exemplifies both these trends.

In this volume delinquent children are defined as those who were brought to juvenile court. The investigation is based on 300 court cases, technically delinquent children, and 300 controls. These matched groups included 242 boys and 58 girls, controlled for sex, age, and locality. The preciseness of the matching on locality is not indicated beyond the broad statement that the control and the experimental groups were living in the same neighborhoods and attending the same schools. The delinquent children, or experimental sample, represent approximately 95 per cent of the cases referred to a California County Court during the period from April, 1933, to June, 1935. Most of the data on which these two samples are compared were gathered at the time of the initial court contact. In addition, information on a follow-up of a selected group of 100 delinquents and 100 control cases, four to six years after the original study, is also presented.

The statistical treatment of the data in-

volves tests of significance using Chi-Square technique. The level of significance is rigidly high. The author reports as true differences only those yielding critical ratios of 3.0 or greater. As an added refinement and precaution, the next 200 delinquents who appeared in the same county juvenile court were compared with the 300 juvenile delinquents who made up the experimental sample. Except for one variable, relation of intelligence to type of offense, these two groups were found to be essentially alike. This added study lends support to the contention that the unique traits of the experimental sample may validly be assumed to be associated with delinquency.

The most significant contribution in this volume is not in the array of critical ratios, although these add much needed information to the literature. The reader will be struck with the author's pointed conclusion that the sum of the similarities is larger than the sum of the differences between the control and the experimental delinquent groups. At the same time, Merrill carefully points out that the presence of a personal characteristic or socio-environmental factor in one group and its significant absence in another does not necessarily indicate a causal relation. However, since the author proves that certain factors are significantly associated with the delinquent population, the prevention of delinquency may be augmented; for the reader is provided in this study with many clues or telltale signs that may indicate those children who could be helped through early identification of proneness, susceptibility, or exposure to delinquency.

In all, approximately 325 critical ratios are reported. Of this number, only 70 were

found to meet the author's level of acceptance that a true difference existed between the experimental and the control cases on the variable measure. More significant critical ratios were reported for the data in the personal area (structure of home, birthplace of parents, parent-child relations, number of siblings, position in family, economic status of parents, etc.) and in the attitudes and interest area than in other fields of inquiry, such as recreation, movie interests, scores on Bell's Adjustment Inventory, and intelligence-quotient. Of particular interest are the 25 critical ratios reported between 123 recidivists and 134 single offenders. Only three significant differences were noted between these two groups on the variables investigated.

The outstanding contribution of this report lies in the twenty-five case studies that appear throughout the volume. These individualized reports show how the interaction of environmental pressures and personal needs culminated in the type of conduct that resulted in court appearances. The lessons to be learned with regard to delinquency causation are best taught through the mediums of the individual case technique. It is this phase of the author's work that makes this study a particularly valuable contribution to the scientific literature on child behavior.

While the author states that she has not attempted to present a rounded account of the literature on delinquency, it is regrettable that she did not take into consideration, as a frame of reference in the interpretation of her findings, more of the research reported in the field during the past ten years. Some of this research would have had greater pertinence to her study than, for example, the older studies of Burt, Healy and Bronner, and the Gluecks, which are familiar to most students in the field and do not bear as close repetition as the author has given them. Furthermore, as the author herself admits, some of these authors today find themselves somewhat removed from their original conclu-

sions based on less scientific research reported twenty-five and thirty years ago.

The presentation of tables throughout the volume is excellent. Here is a book that invites the reader to pause awhile on tabular information. A most complete presentation of the statistical findings is to be found in the appendixes. This material bears close inspection and will reward the reader for his trouble. Readers who are accustomed to the impersonal style of most scientific writing may find it necessary to make an effort to adapt themselves to the frequent lapses of the author into the first person.

The naïve student of behavior who is looking for answers and certain cures to the problems of delinquency will be disappointed in this volume; the advanced student who is familiar with the many-sided, individual, and complex problem of delinquent behavior will be reassured through the substantiation of certain findings of recent research and will be rewarded with new light and interpretation on the reasons why some children come into conflict with dominant society.

W. C. KVARACEUS

Boston University



LOUIS V. NEWKIRK, COLEMAN HEWITT, and LAVADA ZUTTER, *Adventures with Plastics*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1947, Pp. xii+276. \$3.50.

Plastics have become an essential part of modern industry, and they are employed in the fabrication of thousands of articles in daily use. Everyone is familiar with the contribution made by these synthetic products to the manufacture of aircraft during the war. In recent years working with plastics in various forms has acquired a significant place as a new and easily acquired handicraft.

Thermoplastics, such as plexiglas and lucite, are especially adapted to craftwork because they are readily formed into almost any shape when heated. The thermosetting plastics, such as catalin and bakelite, which

are characterized by their brilliant coloring, can be obtained in a wide variety of sheets, rods, and tubes. In addition to the solid form, clear, opaque, or colored plastics may be obtained as a powder or as a fluid. Hence almost unlimited possibilities are offered for the school or home workshop.

A new book, *Adventures with Plastics*, presents an excellent program of activities from which teachers or students may select suitable units for almost any need. Chapter i explains the techniques of working plastics with common tools and machines. Chapters ii through ix present a challenging succession of project designs and construction suggestions, and the final chapters provide a valuable discussion of the various kinds of plastics and the most common methods used in processing the material in industry.

One feature of the book that will appeal especially to the craftsman is its large number of drawings, diagrams, and photographs of crafts items. These illustrations are not intended for copying but for supplying as wide a range as possible of the great field of creative possibilities of the medium. In keeping with this objective, chapter ii outlines twelve projects in costume jewelry. Other chapters deal in like manner with objects for use on the desk, dress accessories other than jewelry, items useful in recreation, items for the dinner table, utility fixtures, and objects for the home. Chapter ix, entitled "Preserving Specimens," offers a field of experimentation for advanced students and for those persons who may wish to develop special hobbies. An appendix contains suggestions for ordering stock, equipment, and supplies and gives a selected bibliography of books and periodicals for further study of this fascinating craft.

This book makes a distinctive contribution to the literature of the field by presenting specific problems which will appeal to the interests of both young people and adults. Altogether, one hundred carefully worked out projects are outlined, with detailed instructions, drawings, and photographs. Here

is a volume that will do much to establish a relatively new material into the craft program of the modern school. The tools and machines required are not expensive or dangerous to use. The completed articles are attractive, useful, and durable.

WILLIAM G. WHITFORD
University of Chicago



RUTH STRANG, *Educational Guidance: Its Principles and Practice*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1947. Pp. xiv+268. \$2.90.

Along with increasing complexity of human relations, individuals experience increasing difficulty in making intelligent decisions. The importance for adult life of decisions made during youth has long been recognized by students of guidance. A new book, *Educational Guidance*, aims to strengthen this subject, which is considered a somewhat neglected field in comparison with guidance in a more general sense or with the narrower field of vocational guidance.

In the first of the seven chapters, attention is centered in the nature of, and need for, educational guidance. Chapters ii-v consider the goals, materials, administrative organization, and counseling processes that are associated with educational guidance. Classroom observations, standardized tests, interviews and cumulative school records are among the source materials considered important for use in developing self-appraisal—the primary goal of guidance. By way of illustration, the author includes the available information on educational opportunities offered by high schools, colleges, and special schools and cites vocational directories and other sources from which information concerning specific vocations in particular sections of the country can be secured. She evaluates various plans for organizing guidance programs to cover the period from transition to high school through the years of college life. The nature of the counseling process

is discussed in relation to social circumstances and school policies which govern the guidance setting, with emphasis on the type of counseling that helps a youth to arrive at his own conclusions rather than to follow the instructions of a counselor. Certain limitations of the client-centered approach are recognized. The chapters indicated end, typically, with a concluding statement and a list of references.

Chapters vi and vii, constituting half the textual material of the book, are devoted to counseling interviews—chapter vi relates to high-school years and chapter vii to college and subsequent years. The interviews apparently have been selected with the aim of presenting a variety of guidance problems, as well as variation in the quality of counseling offered. In most cases the interview material is followed by a detailed evaluation of the counseling technique used in connection with the particular problem involved.

The six appendixes cover twenty-four pages: Appendix A presents a list of intelligence tests; Appendix B indicates sources of information regarding schools of different levels; Appendix C suggests a blank form

covering "Information for College Entrance in Addition to the Record of School Marks"; Appendix D shows the intellectual level of student bodies in various colleges, as reflected by the Psychological Examination of the American Council on Education given in 1934; Appendix E lists "Books Helpful to Students in Determining Their Vocational Objectives"; and Appendix F is devoted to "Training Opportunities for Veterans."

Readers familiar with the guidance field will recognize the contributions which the author has made to the field and will note the similarity in viewpoint between the present book and some of the author's earlier writings. This publication includes a large amount of concrete information regarding guidance materials and procedures, as well as a large number of carefully selected interviews. The book is well organized and the significance and use of the materials which it presents are well explained and interpreted. All in all, it constitutes an important contribution to an important field and should be of value for several years.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

Chicago, Illinois



CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

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